# A HIGHER ENGLISH GRAMMAR



by Alexander Bain





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#### Alexander Bain

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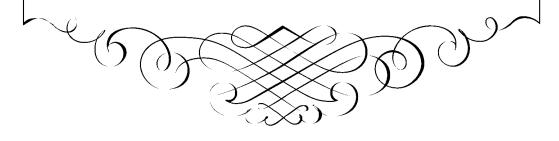
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## A HIGHER

## ENGLISH GRAMMAR

BY

#### ALEXANDER BAIN, LL.D.

Professor of Logic in the University of Aberdeen.

## NEW EDITION REVISED AND ENLARGED



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#### PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

THE present work has been composed with more particular reference to the class of English Composition (attached to the Chair of Logic) in the University of Aberdeen.

While availing myself of the best works on the English Language, I have kept steadily in view the following plan.

Under Etymology, the three departments: 1st, Classification of Words or the Parts of Speech; 2nd, Inflexion; 3rd, Derivation, have been separately discussed. This method I think better adapted for conveying grammatical information than the older one, of exhausting successively each of the Parts of Speech in all its relations.

The practice of explaining the precise meanings of the frequently recurring words of the language, such as pronouns, articles, distributive adjectives, prepositions, and conjunctions, has here been systematically followed out. Words of this description are not numerous. Belonging alike to all subjects and all styles, they are the very hinges of composition. The explanation of them, so long as it is confined to a small compass, is a proper office of the grammarian, although therein he may seem to intrude a little on the province of the lexicographer.

A similar plan is carried out in the second part of Etymology.—Inflexion. Thus, the meanings of the different moods and tenses of the verb are explained as accurately as the writer's knowledge would enable him. Almost all the newer grammars recognise the expediency of this course.

So with regard to Derivation, the meanings of the significant prefixes and suffixes are stated. Under this head, such an account has been given of the sources of the English vocabulary, as in a great measure to dispense with an Etymological dictionary.

One advantage of the plan now described is the simplifying of Syntax, which, when freed from all matters relating to the meanings of words and of inflexions, may fall entirely under the three heads of Concord. Government, and Order or Arrangement of words; this last part being what in our language most requires the careful attention of the pupil.

For the sake of the accurate definition of the Parts of Speech, as well as for General Syntax, the recently introduced system of the Analysis of Sentences is fully explained. On this subject the method given by Mr. C. P. Mason has been principally followed.

A short account of the English Alphabet is prefixed, but Orthography at large is not entered on in this work. The subjects of Prosody, Figures of Speech, and Style, are also reserved, it being purposed to include them in a separate manual of Rhetoric.

In the discussion of the idioms and constructions of the language, this grammar contains one novelty of importance, namely, the explanation of the precise uses of the relatives, 'That,' 'Who,' and 'Which'. The distinction between 'that' on the one hand, and 'who' and 'which' on the other, was clearly perceived by our idiomatic writers up to the beginning of the last century; but owing to an unfortunate misapprehension as to the peculiarly English idiom of throwing a preposition to the end of a clause, the relative 'that' is now very little employed in book composition, 'who' and 'which' being made to serve in its stead. For my first knowledge of the real distinction I was indebted, more than twenty years ago, to a communication from Dr. Thomas Clark, then of Marischal College.

In the preparation of this grammar my acknowledgments are more especially due to Mr. C. P. Mason (English Grammar), Dr. Angus (Handbook of the English Tongue), Mr. Ernest Adams (Elements of the English Language), Dr. Latham's Works, Dr. Charles W. Connon (English Grammar), Dr. Crombie (Etymology and Syntax. of the English Language), Dr. Morell (English Grammar), Mr. O. Allen Ferris (English Etymology), Mr. T. Kerchever Arnold (English Grammar), Rev. A. J. D. D'Orsey. (English Grammar, Chambers's Course), Mr. Brandon Turner (English Grammar), Mr. Matthew Harrison (The English Language), and Mr. Henry H. Breen (Modern English Literature). I am also much indebted to an outline of English Grammar, in Chambers's Information for the People, written by Dr. Andrew Findlater, Editor of Chambers's Encyclopædia.

#### PREFACE TO THE PRESENT EDITION.

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In reprinting the Grammar for the present edition, the typography has been remodelled in such a way as to facilitate the ready apprehension of the learner. At the same time, the matter has undergone both revision and enlargement. The effect of the changes has been to increase the bulk by considerably over one-half.

In carrying out the original design of the work, as stated in the foregoing Preface, many additional examples have been introduced to illustrate the numerous phases of our grammatical forms and idioms. This I consider to be the most thoroughly practical aim of an English Grammar.

The chief part of the extension, however, is in relation to the historical development of our grammatical peculiarities. The great advance in the historical study of English in its various forms, from the oldest writings downwards, has been sedulously turned to account. Probably none of the most important authorities have been overlooked. Throughout the work, acknowledgments for particular suggestions are made as they occur. While it would be endless to note every source of information, it is necessary to single out for general acknowledgment the help that has been at all stages derived, whether directly, or by way of suggestion,

from the works of Dr. Richard Morris. Among the other pioneers of Early English investigation, and of philological research at large, have to be mentioned Professor Whitney, Mr. Peile, Rev. W. W. Skeat, and Mr. H. Sweet. The German writers on English Grammar have necessarily been included among the authorities. Nevertheless it was incumbent to avoid overloading the work with this class of illustration, and to select only those most fitted for the student of the Higher Grammar. Whether the line has been properly drawn, must be judged differently by different persons. To do the most for the pupils, within given limits, is the object aimed at; and the class of pupils principally addressed are those that desire, above all other things, to receive aid in attaining the power of English Composition.

Since the Grammar first appeared, I have published, in addition to a Manual of Rhetoric and Composition, two separate Grammatical works: one—A First Grammar, preparatory to the study of the present; the other—A Companion to the Higher Grammar. In the present revision, care has been taken to keep the work in its proper place, in relation to these two.

A very important adjunct to Grammatical teaching, according to my conception of it, is provided in a recent book, entitled First Work in English (Longmans), by Mr. A. F. Murison, formerly English Master in the Grammar School of Aberdeen. This book is a happy combination of Grammar, properly so called, with an exhibition of the wealth of the language in Equivalent Forms. It may be taught both in advance

of the Grammar and along with it; and, in either case, will largely promote the final end of all instruction in English—to give the pupils a mastery of their own language.

ABERDEEN, January, 1879.

#### TABLE OF CONTENTS.

		THI	E AI	LPH	ABE	eT.				
	. Vowel Scheme	i ,	•	•		•	•	•	•	PAGE 1
4.	Consonants .	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	5
					OGY					
	A	TH]	e si	ENT	ÉNC	E.				
2. 3. 4. 5. 6. 7. 8. 9.	Speech is made Usual form of Son A Sentence consorm The naked Sentence The Predicate end The Subject and The Predicate end The Adverbial Phrase The Adverbial Phrase The Adverbial Form Sentences Conjunction The Subject or the Prono	entenists of the Colorest Phrase unite	of a S  The bject  Many  ed by  bject	f an ubject No an (tenla the words the	affirmet and un ar Object rged. mann ded A e Pr	l a Prod the t.  The er of control depositing the control of the c	e dica e VE: e AD. the a os rion wor	te RB FCTI ction d.—	ve .—	8 ib. 9 10 11 ib. 12 ib. ib. 13
	THI	E PA	RTS	S OI	FSP	EEC	H.			
		,	THE	NO	UN.					
4.	B. Definition of t Classes of Noun	s. I	. Pr	OPER			•		NG-	14
6. 7. 8.	IESS	s witl re Ger E No	h Sig neral uns	nifica	ınt N	ames	•	•	•	<ul> <li>ib.</li> <li>ib.</li> <li>18</li> <li>ib.</li> <li>ib.</li> <li>ib.</li> </ul>
10. 11. 12.	V. ABSTRACT N Abstract Nouns Other Abstract	Touns most Nour	tly dens for	med	from	Verb		es •	•	21 <i>ib</i> . 22

	Uses of the Noun.		PAGE
14.	In its typical application, the Noun names the	e Sub-	2 23 CA 64
	ject		23
15.	The Noun sometimes completes the Predicate		$\ddot{ib}$ .
16.	The Noun is used in forming Prepositional Phra	ises .	ib.
17.	The Noun frequently acts as an Adjective.		ib.
	Substitutes for the Noun.	•	
10	<del>-</del>		0.4
10.	The Pronoun regularly takes the place of the No	oun .	24
	Adjectives are often turned into Nouns.	• •	ib.
20.	The Infinitive of the Verb is substantially a Northern Adverbe accessionally appear as Northern	7II •	ib.
21.	Even Adverbs occasionally appear as Nouns	• •	ib.
ZZ.	A Noun Clause is the fullest equivalent to a No	un •	25
	THE PRONOUN.		
1.	The Pronoun is a relational word		25
	Classes of Pronouns—I. The Personal .		ib.
	II. DEMONSTRATIVE		26
	5. 'He.' 'She'		ib.
	Meaning of 'It'		27
	Backward or Retrospective Reference of 'it'		ib.
	Forward or Anticipative Reference		ib.
	The Vague or Indefinite Reference		28
` '	Further general examples of the uses of 'it'		29
7.	'They'.		30
8.	The Demonstratives 'This' and 'That'.		ib.
	Indefinite Pronouns:—'They', 'One'		31
	Reflexive Pronouns by means of 'self' .		32
	15. III. Interrogative Pronouns		33
16.	IV. RELATIVE. Pronouns		ib.
17.	A Relative Pronoun involves the power of a con	njunc-	
	tion		34
18.	'Who' is best applied as co-ordinating	•	ib.
	'Who' is frequently used as restrictive .		35
19.	'Which' is similarly employed		ib.
	'Which' may refer to a whole statement.		36
	'Which' in apparent reference to persons.	'The	
	which'	<b>.</b>	ib.
20.	'That' is the proper Relative of Restriction .	•	ib.
	Proposed limitation of 'that' to this special me	aning	37
21.	'What' and its compounds		38
22-	28. Substitutes for the Proper Relatives: 'as', '	but',	
	'when', 'where', 'whence', 'whither', 'wh	ıy'.	ib.
29.	The Compound Relatives: 'whoever', 'whoso		40
	Further examples of Relative Construction		41
31.	The Pronoun saves the repetition of a Noun.	Other	
	modes of serving the same end		47

	THE ADJECTIVE.				PAGE
1	The Adjective limits the application of the	e No	เเท	_	47
2.	The Adjective Inflexion as a distinguishing	no mo	ırk		48
	Classes of Adjectives—I. PRONOMINAL				ib.
	5. Pronominal Demonstrative Adjectives		-	•	49
	Pronominal Interrogative Adjectives	•	•		50
	Pronominal Relative Adjectives .	•	•	_	51
	Pronominal Possessive Adjectives .	•	•		ib.
	II. Adjectives expressing QUANTITY		•		52
10.		•			ib.
	Quantity in Number—Definite Numeral	Adjec	tives	٠	ib.
	Indefinite Numeral Adjectives		•		53
	Distributive Numeral Adjectives .	•	•	•	<b>55</b>
	III. Adjectives of QUALITY				56
	Proper Adjectives . ,				ib.
	,	•		•	
	The Articles.				
16.	17. 'An' or 'A'		_		57
	'The '-Its various meanings	•	•	•	58
	Substitutes for the Adjective	?. <b>.</b>			
	The fullest equivalent is the Adjective Cl		•	•	60
	The Participial Phrase, if shorter, is equa			•	ib.
	The Prepositional Phrase is still more con	dense	d	•	ib.
	The Noun employed as an Adjective.	•	•	•	ib.
23.			•.	•	61
24.	Adverbs and Prepositions are occasional s	ubstit	utes	•	ib.
	Co-ordinating or Predicate Adje	ctives.			
25	The Adjective as complement of Incomple				62
26.	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·			•	ib.
	By condensation, co-ordinating Adjective			• 10	•0.
<i>~</i> , .	prefixed to nouns		iay .	,	ib.
	promise to house the second	•	•	•	•0•
	THE VERB.				
1.	The Verb necessary to Predication .	•	•	•	63
2,	Classes of Verbs—I. Transitive.—Reflex	xive	•	•	ib.
•	Reciprocal Verbs	•	9	•	64
3.	II. Intransitive Verbs	•	•	•	ib.
	Intransitive with preposition treated as T	ransit	ives	•	ib.
4.	III. Incomplete, Apposition, or Copula V		•	•	<b>65</b>
	6. Auxiliary and Impersonal Verbs.	•	•	•	ib.
	Other parts of Speech used as Verbs.				ib.

	THI	E AI	OVERI	В.				PA(-1
1.	Limits or modifies the or other Adverbs. B	mear ut of	ing of Prepo	Ver sition	bs, Ad ns, on	ljectiv ly app	es,	
	ently		•				•	66
	Adverbs divided into Si	$\mathbf{m}\mathbf{p}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{e}$	and F	Relati	ve.	•	•	67
	I. Adverbs of Place				•	•		ib
	Adverbs expressing Res				•	•	•	68
	6. Motion to a Place, ar					•	•	69
7-	11. II. Adverbs denoting				$\mathbf{Preser}$	it.	•	ib.
	Past, Future; Duration	ı,_Re	petitio	n	•	•	•	70
12.	III. Adverbs signifying	DEG	REE O	r ME	ASURI	E .	•	71
13.	Important Adverbs of	Com	pariso	n := -5	So, As	s, Tha	an,	
	The, Too, &c.				•	•	•	ib
	IV. Belief, Disbelief					•	•	78
	V. CAUSE and EFFECT,		uding	Instr	ument	tality	•	74
	VI. MANNER or QUALIT			•	•	٠	•	ib.
	Adverbs of Manner tran			xpres	ss Deg	ree	•	75
18.	Adverbs formed from Pa	artici	ples	•	•	•	•	ib.
	Substitutes fo	or the	Simn	le Ad	werb.			
10	<del>-</del>		_	<i>10</i> 110	,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,			:1
	Adverbial Phrases and Other Parts of Speech v	ised a	as Adv			ıns, P	ro-	ib.
	nouns, Adjectives, V THE P		_		18 .	•	•	77
	Iner	TEL	08111	OIV.				
1.	Preposition defined .	•	•	٠		•	•	78
2.	Prepositions correspondi	ing to	o case-	endin	gs	•	•	79
3.		•			•	•		ib.
4.	'To'. ,, .	•	•	•	•	•	•	83
<b>5.</b>	For .	•	•		•	•	•	84
6.	'From'.		•		•	•	•	86
7.	'By'. ,,	•	•	•	•	•	•	ib.
8.	'With'. ,	•	•	•	. •	•	•	87
9.	Prepositions of I. Place				•	•	•	88
	Prepositions of Rest in a		ce .	•	•	•	•	89
	12. Motion with direction			ce an	d dire	ction	•	90
	II. Prepositions of TIME			•	9	•		97
	III. AGENCY				•	•		98
	IV. END		•		•		•	ib.
16.	V. REFERENCE .				•	•	8	ib.
17.	VI. SEPARATION and E	XCLU	ISION	•	•	•		99
-	VII. INCLINATION and			7				ib.
19.	VIII. AVERSION .	- · <del>-</del>				3		ib.
	21. IX. Substitution.	Χ.	Posses	SSION	, Mate	erial	•	ib.
-	The Preposition disting			_		_		ib.

		PAGE
	THE CONJUNCTION.	
1. 2	The Conjunction defined	100
۵.	dinating	101
3.	I. Co-ordinating Conjunctions; their character .	ib.
4.	(1.) Cumulative Conjunctions: represented by 'and' (2.) Adversative Conjunctions: (a) Exclusive—'else'	ib.
	&c	103
	(b) Alternative: 'either—or', &c	104
	(c) Arrestive: 'but', &c	105
6.	(3.) Illative Conjunctions: as 'therefore'.	107
	II. SUBORDINATING Conjunctions: their character .	108
8.		ib.
		110
	(3.) End or Purpose, Precaution	$\begin{array}{c} 112 \\ 113 \end{array}$
11.		
	THE INTERJECTION—EXCLAMATION. • •	114
	INFLEXION.	
	INFLEXION OF NOUNS.	
	GENDER.	
1.	Natural Gender. Gender follows Sex. Gender-Mas-	
	culine, Feminine, Neuter, Common	115
	Purely Grammatical Gender	116
3.	Gender distinguished by employing different words .	117
	By Prefixes	118
<b>5</b> .		119
	Poetical Gender: Inanimate objects personified.	122
7.	Pronouns and the Gender of Nouns. The Common	
	Gender	ib.
	NUMBER.	
1.	Meaning of Number: Singular and Plural	123
	Usual formation of the Plural	ib.
	Obsolete modes of forming the Plural	126
	Nouns having the same form in both numbers	127
	Many Foreign words retain their original Plurals .	ib.
6.	Some Nouns have two Plurals, with separate mean-	
<b>)</b> -	ings	128
1.	The Plural sometimes differs in meaning from the	
Q	Singular	$ib. \ 129$
	Some Nouns are used only in the Plural Some Plural forms are construed as singular	<i>ib.</i>
••	- Nomes a lulul lululu diu Uuluuluuluu do oiliguldi - 🛕 - 👂	vv.

			PAGE
10.	A few Singular forms are treated as Plural	•	. 130
	Proper Nouns sometimes become Plural .	•	. <i>ib</i> .
	13. Material and Abstract Nouns are naturally	Singu	
,	lar: special plural cases	_	. 131
٦4	Nouns of Multitude: singular form, plural co		
T. T.		11501 40	$oldsymbol{i} b.$
1 5	Omission of the Article a sign of the Plural	•	<i>ib.</i>
	Sign of the Plural sometimes dispensed with	•	<i>ib</i> .
		•	
	Special meanings of the Plural	•	. 132
18.	Formation of the Plural of Compound Nouns	•	• <i>ib</i> .
	CASE.		
٦ -	Meaning of Case		. 133
	Cases in English	•	• ib.
	General Formation of the Possessive	•	-
		•	• <i>ib</i> .
	The 's' of the Possessive occasionally dropt	•	. 134
	The Possessive formation in Compound Nouns		. 135
6.	The Possessive Inflexion limited to certain cla	asses o	
	Names		. $ib.$
7.	's'—the inflexion of personal possession.	•	. 136
8.	Remnants of Case-inflexion in pronouns and ad	verbs	. 137
	, -		
	INFLEXION OF PRONOUNS.		
1	Extent of the Inflexion of Pronouns		. 137
	Personal Pronouns declined	•	
		•	ib.
	The Demonstratives	•	. 138
	The Reflexive Pronouns, formed by 'self'.	•	. 140
	The Interrogatives	•	. 141
6.	The RELATIVES	•	• $ib$
	Substitutes for Relative Inflexions .		. 142
7.	Nouns after Plural Possessive Pronouns .	•	• 143
	INFLEXION OF ADJECTIVES.		
4	Adjectives Inflected for Doomes Companies		1 40
	Adjectives Inflected for Degree—Comparison	•	. 143
	Positive, Comparative, and Superlative Degrees	3	. 144
	Certain Modifications in Spelling	•	. 145
	Comparison by help of 'more' and 'most'	•	• $ib$ .
	Forms in -ior from Latin, partial comparatives	•	. 146
	Irregular and Defective Comparison	•	. $ib.$
7.	Double Comparatives and Superlatives discoura	$\mathbf{ged}$	. 149
	Certain Adjectives, from their meaning, are no		
	pared		. <i>ib</i> .
9.	Roundabout equivalents to a superlative form	•	. 150
	Relative Applications of Comparative and Supe	rlativ	
	Eminence or Intensity expressed	71 1CC U1 1	ib.
41.			a 'U!)

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53. Perfect	PAGE . 188
54. Progressive Tenses of the Passive Voice: 'The hous	se
is building '	ib.
55. Apparent passive of Intransitive Verbs: 'has come and 'is come'.	. 189
The Strong Conjugation.	
<ul><li>56. Its special forms. Principle of following classification</li><li>57-61. Classified lists of Old or Strong Verbs</li></ul>	on 190 • <i>ib</i> .
The Weak Conjugation.	
62. Its special forms 63. Classified lists of New or Weak Verbs •	. 197 . ib.
DERIVATION.	
SOURCES OF ENGLISH WORDS.	
1. English Vocabulary has two principal sources—Angle Saxon and Latin, and a number of minor sources	. 203
2, 3. Introduction of the classical element. I. Durin	
the Roman occupation of the island	. 204 <i>ib</i> .
4. II. After the introduction of Christianity. 5. III. After the Norman conquest	205
6. IV. After the Revival of Learning	206
7. Celtic words	208
8. Scandinavian words	210
9. Dutch, German, and Flemish words	212
10. Words recently introduced from the French	ib.
11-24. Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Walloon, Swiss, Turkish, Arabic, Hebrew, Persian, Hindu, Malay	r-
Chinese, Polynesian, American	213
25. Words derived from Persons	. 216
26. , from Places	. 217
27-34. Rules for distinguishing Native from Classica	al
words, based on the Form	. $ib.$
35. Native words are farther distinguished by what the	<b>y</b>
denote	. 219
36. Names of Kindred, Home, and Natural Feelings	$\bullet$ ib.
37. Names of familiar Objects and Movements .	• $ib$ .
38. Names of common Industry	• 222
39. Civil and Religious Institutions	. $ib.$
40, 41. National Proverbs. Invective and Satire.	. 223
42. Particular Objects as opposed to the General or Al	
stract	. $ib.$
43-45. Exceptions	ib.

	*						
	COMPOSITION	OF	WOR	DS.			PAGE
1.	Two kinds of Compounds	•		•	*	٠	224
	PREFI	XES.					
2	Prefixes of Home origin .			_		_	225
	Prefixes of Classical origin	•	•	•	•	•	$\frac{228}{228}$
	Latin Prefixes, and French n	nodifi	cation	s.	•	•	ib.
	Greek Prefixes		8	•		•	234
	DERIVATION OF ,THE	PAI	RTS OF	SPEI	ECH.		
6.	Some Nouns are primitive, or					ers	236
	Derived Nouns: whence form				•		ib.
	I. Nouns derived from other				is me	ans	ib.
	II. Nouns derived from Adje		es .	•	•	•	241
	III. Nouns derived from Ver		<u>•</u>	•	•	•	242
	Derivation of Adjectives: I.			ns	•	•	246
	II. From other Adjectives	•		•	•	•	249
Lä.	III. From Verbs	A NT	•		•	•	250
	Derivation of Verbs: I. From Adjustings II.				Tauba	•	251
	16. II. From Adjectives. II Derivation of Adverbs: chie					nd.	252
L / .	Nouns	eny .	HOIII A	rujeci	AVES &	inu	253
18.	Derivation of Prepositions	9	•	8	•		$\frac{253}{254}$
10.	Derivation of Conjunctions	•	•	8	•	•	255
	Derivatives expressing Negat	tion	<b>9</b>	•	•	•	ib.
	Modified Forms					•	256
	Compound	Wo	RDS				
22.		11 0.	KDS.				057
	Description and Examples Composition of Nouns	•	9			•	257
	Composition of Adjectives	•	•	•	•	•	$\begin{array}{c} 258 \\ 259 \end{array}$
	Composition of Verbs	•	•	•	•	•	260
	Composition of Adverbs .		•		•	•	ib.
	Composition of Prepositions						ib.
	Simulated Compounds, and	Comp	ounds	in di	sguise		ib.
	-	_	,				Marine Marine .
	SYNT	'AX	•			p - 4	
	THE ANALYSIS (	OF S	ENTE	ENCE	S.		
1,	2. Parts of the Sentence. D	ivisi	on of S	Senter	ices	•	264
	THE SIMPLE	SENT	TENCE.				
3-	5. The Simple Sentence and i	ts en	largen	nents	•	_	265
	The Subject and the Object				orms	-	ib.
	Enlargements or Adjuncts of					•	266

6,000	- 3	
8. Plurality of Adjuncts at one time		PAGE 268
9. The Predicate: simple and complex forms	•	_
	•	. 269
10. The form of Negation is part of the Predicate	•	• 270
11. Transitive Predicate completed by Object.		. 271
12. Predicate enlarged by Adverb or Adverb Phrase	3	$\bullet$ $ib$ .
13. Various forms of the Adverbial Phrase .	•	b.
Absolute Construction of the Participle.	•	272
Impersonal use of the Participle	•	. 273
THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.		
14. Nature of the Complex Sentence		. 274
15. Three kinds of Subordinate Clauses	•	ib.
16, 17. The Noun Clause	•	275
18, 19. The Adjective Clause	•	276
20. The Adverbial Clause	•	278
21. Contraction of the Adverbial Clause .	•	• 270 • 280
21. Contraction of the Advertial Clause.	•	. 200
THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.		
22. Nature of the Compound Sentence	• (	280
23. Contracted Sentences. Irregular Contractions		ib.
EXAMPLES OF ANALYSIS.		
SIMPLE SENTENCES.		
24. Method of proceeding		281
	•	282
25-37. Examples of Simple Sentences	•	, 204
COMPLEX SENTENCES.	•	
38. Subordinate Clauses analysed separately .	• (	286
39-48. Examples containing Noun Clauses .	• (	$\bullet$ ib.
49-54. Examples containing Adjective Clauses	• (	. 290
55-61. Examples containing Adverbial Clauses	• (	293
<u> </u>		-
COMPOUND SENTENCES.		
62. The parts to be analysed separately	•	295
CONTRACTED SENTENCES.		
63, 64. Examples		27.
os, o4. Examples	• 6	, ib.
ELLIPTICAL SENTENCES.		
65. These must be expressed in full		296
66-78. Examples		297
<u>-</u>	•	, _~,
CONCORD.		
1. General Principles. Concord implied under F	Etymo-	•
loav	,	200

		PAGE
	CONCORD OF SUBJECT AND VERB.	
2.	General Rules. Causes of errors	300
3.	Concord of Collective Nouns	ib.
	Plural form with Singular meaning takes Singular Verb	302
4.	Singular Nouns coupled by 'and' take a Plural Verb	ib.
ĸ	Exceptions and Peculiarities	303
υ.	Singular Verb	307
6.	When the Subject is a Relative Pronoun, we must	
	look to the Antecedent	308
	Concord of Pronouns of different Persons	ib.
8.	When the Predicate is completed by a Noun, the sub-	.7
	ject may be ambiguous	ib.
	CONCORD OF ADJECTIVE AND OF PRONOUN WITH NOU	N
•	CONCORD OF ADJECTIVE AND OF FRONOUN WITH NOU	74.
9.	Concord of 'this' and 'that'	309
10.	Concord of the Distributive Adjectives-'each',	
	'every', &c.	ib.
	A Common Gender pronoun of 3rd person wanted .	310
	CONCORD OF TENSES.	
11.	Contemporaneous actions are stated in the same Tense	311
	Principal and Subordinate Tenses must not conflict.	ib.
	Speciality of the Present Indefinite	ib.
L.	- twee	THE RESERVE OF THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN TWO IS NOT THE PERSON NAMED IN COLUMN TWO IS NOT THE PERSON NAMED IN
	GOVERNMENT.	
1.	Meaning of Government	312
	Possessive of Noun or of Pronoun preceding Noun or	
	Infinitive	ib.
	Government of Transitive Verbs and of Prepositions.	313
	The forms 'It is I', 'It is me'	314
<b>D</b> .	Other cases of Objective, where Nominative is expected	315
	ed	010
	ORDER OF WORDS	
1.	Most general principle of Order	315
	SUBJECT AND VERB.	
2.	General Rule. Exceptions	316 <i>ib</i> .

									PAGE
	V.	ERB .	AND	OBJEC	T.				
3.	Rule and Exception	S	•	8	•	•	•	•	317
	NOU	N A	IA dr	DJECT	IVE.				
4.	Rule. Exceptions				_			a	317
_•	The 'three first', an	$\operatorname{ad}  \operatorname{th}$	e 'fir	st thr	ree'		•	•	319
<b>5.</b>	Placing of the Artic	le	•	e	0	•	•	•	ib.
	PRONO	UN A	ND A	NTEC	EDEN	T.			
6.	Every Pronoun show	ald h	ave a	distir	net A	ntece	dent		320
	Rules of Proximity					•	•	•	ib.
	Confused reference				•	•	•	•	321
	•								
_	PLACI	NG 0	F TH	E AD	VERB	•			004
-	General Rules			•		•	•	•	321
8.	Placing of 'only'	9	•	•	•	•	•	•	322
	Not—but only.		6		9	•	•	•	323
IV.	Not only—but also	* T	• •	<b>N</b> T	<b>4:</b> ~	•	•	•	$\begin{array}{c} 324 \\ 325 \end{array}$
	Placing of 'not'. 'At least'	unbe	erieci	мega	uion	•	•	•	ib.
	Other examples of r	nienl	Lane	A dwar	rhial	Adim	nate	•	ib.
10.	Other examples of i	msþr	aceu.	Auvei	lmai	Aujui	ILCUS	•	<i>.</i>
	PLACI	NG C	F PR	EPOSI	TION	S.			
14.	General Rule, with	Exce	ption	S.		•			326
	•		-						
	PLACI	NG O	F COL	NJUNC	TION	s.			
15.	Members of doubl						s to	be	
	placed in corresp	ondir	ng po	$\mathbf{sition}$	<b>s</b> .	•	•	•	326
16-	18. Ellipsis, Pleon	NASM	, and	l Par	ENTI	iesis,	as p	ro-	
	cesses of Syntax	•	•	•		•	•		327
		<b>Ω</b> Τ3	<b>T</b> )	TTTT	-				
	•	OF	PUI	RITY	•				
BAI	RBARISM	•		•		9	•		328
Şor	PROPRIETY. 1. In s 2. In p	•	•		•		•	•	329
JMI	PROPRIETY. 1. In s	ingle	word	ls.	•	9	•		330
	2. In p	hras	es		•	•			331
Lis	t of Scotticisms	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	ib.
	PI	JNC	TT	ATIC	N.				
er:•					_,,				007
	COMMA	~ .			*	•			335
	SEMICOLON and the			T)		86			338
The	PERIOD OF FULL ST	rop.	Oth	er 1'01	INTS	•	•	a	339

*		è	3
PARSING.	, ,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	PAGE
1. Parsing for Parts of Speech and Inflexion	•	•	• 340
2. Parsing for Derivation	•	•	. 342
3. Parsing for Syntax	•	•	• 343
EXAMPLES of ERRORS, and of inferior forms	•	•	• <i>ib</i> .
APPENDIX.			
I. Celtic words	•		• 349
		•	
	•	•	<b>3</b> 51
IV. Monosyllables of Classical origin •	•	•	. 354

TABLE OF CONTENTS; ; ; ; ; ; ; , XXIII,

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When we go back in the history of our alphabet as far as we can, we find three early vowels, from which the others have come by various modifications.

These are: a (which has been doubled, or lengthened, in 'far', 'father', &c.; and which is still kept in Scotch and German 'man'), i (as in it, bit, fit, &c.), and u (as in 'bull',

'full', &c.).

a ('father', Scot. and Germ. 'man') is the sound heard when voice issues unimpeded from open mouth and throat, the back of the tongue being drawn well down; i (feet, fit) is produced when the tongue is raised almost to the middle of the palate; u (fool, full) is then formed by again withdrawing the tongue a

little and rounding the lips.

The union of a and i produces the diphthong heard in 'fine', 'mine',—what we call "long i". Between a and i is e (á, è), heard in 'they', 'pain', 'fate', 'then', 'pen'; the long sound being really a diphthong. Between a and this e is a in 'bat', 'cat', 'fat', 'man', &c. Similarly, between a and u stands o (note, obey); the sound being really a diphthong. And between a and this o stands the long sound—call it ō—heard in 'all', 'Austria', 'aŭstere'; the corresponding short sound is heard in 'what', 'not'.

 $\dot{u}$  (but, cut, &c.) is probably a guttural vowel, though rather indefinite: "the specific quality" of it, says Prof. Whitney, "is due to a dimming action along the whole mouth rather than an approach at a definite point or points," and it is "thus a duller kind of a". When followed by r (hurt, burn), u seems to modify its sound; an apparent change probably due to the

peculiar pronunciation of the r.

Taking the vowels as we find them in use, a practical phonetic representation might be arranged as follows.

Accented Vowels.—A vowel sound, uttered clearly and with stress of voice, is said to be accented.

The accent may fall either on the vowel alone, or on the vowel together with a consonant next following it.

á, é, í, ó, ú, may represent the long vowel sounds heard in 'lay, lee, lie, lo! loo'.

These exemplify such as receive the accent exclusively on the vowel.

à, è, ì, ò, ù, may represent the short vowel sounds in 'sat, set, sit, not, nut'.

These exemplify such as receive the accent on the consonant

following as well as on the vowel.

Independently of the different kind of accent, these ten vowels are each distinct from the others; they make up ten separate vowels.

ê, î, û, may represent the vowel sounds heard in 'been, pride, pull'.

In some words the accented long vowel sounds are pronounced with force, quickly, and so as to include in the accent a consonant that comes after the vowel. This happens in the case of the fifth long vowel 'u', in several words, as in 'pull, full', compared with 'pool, fool'; which may be symbolised thus: 'pul, ful'; 'pul, ful'. The second long vowel 'e' undergoes a like change of accent in the word 'been', which is pronounced 'bên'; probably too in several other words; but this particular form of accent has not been much studied heretofore. third long vowel 'i' becomes 'I', that is to say, carries its accent to the next consonant, as in the word 'pride', compared with the words 'pry', 'pried'; which three words may be symbolised thus: 'prid, pri, prid'. The like happens with this vowel in a good many words; but as yet no care has been taken to discriminate syllables thus accented.

ō and ā may represent the vowel sounds heard in 'saw (so), sought (sot); palm (pam), far'.

Accented short vowel sounds have the vowel sound prolonged. in certain words, without any of the accent falling on a following consonant. This happens particularly in the case of 'ò', the fourth of those vowels, as may be seen on comparing the words 'sot, saw, sought' (which may be symbolised 'sot, so, sot'). 'a' is not prolonged; but the older and broader 'a' remaining in Sc. and Germ. 'man', Sc. 'can', Germ. 'kann', &c., is prolonged in 'father, far, art', &c.

The other three accented short vowel sounds (e, i, u) are not thus prolonged, excepting 'e', which occasionally becomes 'e', as in the expression 'veri wel—veri!'

Vowels unaccented.—ă, ĕ, ĭ, ŏ, ŭ, may respectively stand for the vowels  $\acute{a}$ ,  $\acute{e}$ ,  $\acute{i}$ ,  $\acute{o}$ ,  $\acute{u}$ , when out of accent.

Compare 'da, birthda; éz, ejekt; fín, idea; ópium, öba; kruel, krusadz'.

a, e, i, o, u, may respectively stand for the vowels  $a, \dot{e}, \dot{i}, \dot{o}, \dot{u}$ , when out of accent.

Compare 'palas, palashial; pèt, limpet; pit, kokpit; politik, poltrun; up, uphev'.

Unaccented  $\hat{e}$ ,  $\hat{i}$ ,  $\hat{u}$  can hardly be said to differ from unaccented e, i, u, and may be represented in the same way by e, i, u.

'Hàv yũ èver bẽn dhár?' 'Mĩt hế nòt trí az wèl az yú?' 'Fulfil, handfül'.

 $\ddot{o}$  and  $\ddot{a}$  may represent  $\bar{o}$  and  $\bar{a}$  when out of accent.

Compare 'otum, otumnal; ogust, ogust: art, artistik; arteri, arterial'.

Diphthongs.—The chief diphthongs are ou and oi.

ow or ou in the words 'now' and 'noun', and oy or oi in the words 'boy', boil', are compounds of other vowels; in the words 'how' and 'noun', of 'a' and 'ŭ'; in 'boy' and 'boil', of 'ō' and 'e'.

eu, ew,  $\bar{\mathbf{u}}$  (= y\u00ed) may also be regarded as a diphthong,  $\check{e} + \check{u}$ : 'Europe', 'few', 'fuel'.

d, i, ó, which are fundamentally diphthongs, are regarded as substantially simple long vowels.

When out of accent, the diphthongs may be represented thus: ou or ow, oi or oy, yu.

Wand Y. wand y are sometimes called consonants, sometimes semi-vowels.

In any case 'w' is 'ŭ', and 'y' is 'ë', each quickly pronounced before another vowel; as in the words 'we' and 'way' (u-e, u-a = we, wa), and in the words 'ye', 'yea' (ĕ-é, ĕ-á = ye, ya).

Wh represents w modified by the aspirate h. The pronunciation remains in accordance with the old form hw.

u and v often have the sound of v inserted before them; as in 'tyun (tune), fyu (few), hyuman (human), hyuman (humane)'. We have just seen that this compound sound may be classed with the diphthongs.

Although, as already correctly stated, 'a' is a different vowel from 'a', as is 'e' from 'e', 'i' from 'i', &c., yet it it is an important observation that the individuals of each of these couples of vowels are exchangeable with each other in kindred English words, sometimes accented, sometimes unaccented, as may be seen from a few examples: nashon, nashonal, nashonaliti; deriv, derivashon, derivativ; real, réaliz, realiti; idea, idealiz, idéaliti; ral, wa, ralwa; repyut, repyütabl; parent, parental; papa, papal; mason, masonic; continyu, continyuiti; theatr, theatrical; Canada, Canadian; Pariz, Parizian; revel, revelashon; replí, replicashon; repét, repetishon; accent, accent; German, Germanic; Britan, Britania, Britanic, British; land, Scot, Scotland; labor, laborius; öster, osterity (austere, austerity); ospis, ospishus (auspice, auspicious); politik, political.\*

4. The Consonants, and their sounds, are divided according to the part of the mouth uttering them and according to the concurrence of breath or voice from the throat.

The Labials or Lip-consonants (Lat. labia, lips) are p, b; f, v; m.

The consonants, p and b, are called mute, explosive, or momentary labials; the lips completely check the emission of of breath or voice (mute), and just when they are re-opened these consonantal sounds burst forth (explosive), but are heard only for an instant (momentary). f and v are called fricative or continuous labials; the passage is not quite closed and the breath pushes or rubs its way through (fricative), while the sound can in each case be kept up for a little (continuous). f is very nearly p with an added breathing (p+h, ph), and v is nearly an aspirated b (b+h, bh). In strictness, f and v are dentilabials ('tooth-and-lip' consonants), not pure labials; for the upper teeth come down upon the lower lip, and breath or voice is expelled between these.

Again, the members of each of these pairs also differ from each other in this way. When the lips close or open for p, they check or liberate breath; when they close or open for b, they

<sup>\*</sup> This scheme of vowel symbolisation, which has the peculiar advantage of indicating at once the accents and the vowels of words, was communicated to me by Dr. Clark, who considered it likely to be useful, not only in grammatical discussions, but in English pronouncing dictionaries and in the vowel part of any system of phonetic spelling that may be hereafter attempted for the English language. I have made one or two very slight deviations from the original form, for the sake of uniformity and simplicity.

check or liberate voice. Hence p has been variously called a surd, breathed, hard, sharp, or strong sound; and b has been called a sonant, voiced, soft, flat, or weak sound. The two first names in each case are the most appropriate, seeing that they describe the essential point of difference.

In sounding m, the lips are aided by the nose. Hence m is called also a nasal consonont (Lat. nasus, the nose). It is

continuous.

## The Dentals or Tooth-consonants (Lat. dent., 'tooth') are t, d; th, dh; l, n, r.

t (surd) and d (sonant) are momentary; all the rest are continuous. th (as in 'smith', 'thin') is surd,—aspirated t; dh (as in 'booth', 'thine') is sonant,—aspirated d: they are formed by expelling breath and voice between the tongue and the upper teeth. n is also nasal. l is sounded by directing the point of the tongue to the boundary of teeth and palate, and passing voice by the sides of it; r, by passing voice over middle and point of the tongue. (For Scotch and French r, the tongue vibrates strongly against the palate).

## The Palatals, or Palate-consonants, are s, z; sh, zh.

The palatals are all continuous. s and sh (= aspirated s) are surd; z and zh (= aspirated z, the middle consonant heard in 'vision', that is 'vizhon') are sonant.

From their hissing sound, these have also been called 'sibi-

lants'.

## The Gutturals or Throat-sounds (Lat. guttur, the throat) are k, g; (kh, gh), h; ng.

k (surd) and g (sonant) are momentary; the others are continuous. The aspirated kh, gh do not occur now in English; h, a softened sound, or mere guttural breathing, alone remains. ng is nasal.

m, n, l, r, and ng have also been called 'liquids', from their flowing continuous sound. But this is obviously an arbitrary limitation of the name, and does not carry with it any advantage.

It will be seen from the above list, that our alphabet is deficient in characters for expressing the consonant sounds th (thin), dh (thine), sh (shame), zh (azure), ng (ring). It is further redundant as regards the letters c (represented by s or k), q (the same as k before u), and x (either ks or gz). Also j, as representing a compound sound, would be superfluous, if we had the elementary character zh (azure). At present it is a convenient contraction for dzh (the sonant corresponding to the surd compound tsh or ch).

#### ETYMOLOGY.

ETYMOLOGY is the study of individual words. It is in contrast to Syntax, which is the joining of words in sentences.

Individual words may be viewed in three different

ways:

First, we may divide them into classes, or kinds, and explain the purposes served by each kind. This is to give the *classification* of words, or the Parts of Speech.

Secondly, we may consider the changes that they undergo when they enter into composition, as in the plurals of nouns, the comparison of adjectives, &c. This is INFLECTION.

Thirdly, we may examine the growth and structure of words. This is called Derivation.

Before entering upon the first division,—the Parts of Speech, it is requisite to examine the nature of the Sentence.

#### THE SENTENCE.

1. Speech is made up of separate sayings, each complete in itself, and containing several words; and these sayings are Sentences.

Any complete meaning is a sentence.

A single word does not give a meaning: the words, 'John', 'street', 'star', 'see', 'escape', used separately, do not tell us anything. We need at least two words to convey any information: 'John stands', is a full meaning. The cases where even two words are sufficient are not very numerous; most meanings are expressed by more than two words: 'he is in the street', 'I see the star', 'the guilty cannot always escape'.

Any two words, or more, will not give a meaning—that is, will not make a sentence: 'heavy gold', 'thunder lightning', 'all good men themselves', are not sentences. There is a particular kind of word needed to complete the declaration or meaning: 'gold is heavy', 'thunder follows lightning', 'all

good men deny themselves'.

2. The usual and regular form of the Sentence is to declare that something is or is not—to give an affirmation or a denial.

For affirming, we have the form seen in the examples: 'the

sun is risen', 'gold is heavy', 'men will die'.
For denying, we have such forms as 'the sun is not risen', 'feathers are not heavy', 'men will not live always', 'the report is not true', 'a brave soldier will not desert his post'. Such forms differ from the foregoing only in the addition of the negative word 'not'. The distinction between the kinds is of the greatest importance in regard to our belief and conduct, but is seldom considered in Grammar.

Of sentences that do not assume one or other of these forms,

there are two classes—imperative and interrogative.

The Imperative sentence, instead of declaring something, commands, directs, or entreats: 'clear the way', 'turn to the right', 'spare his life'.

The Interrogative sentence asks a question: 'who will go with

me?' 'Can any one disclose the mystery?'

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Compound and Contracted Sentences.—When a sentence cannot be reduced to a single subject and a single predicate, it is because two or more sentences are put together, which occurs not unfrequently: 'The sun gives light by day, and the moon by night', contains two subjects—'the sun', 'the moon', and two predicates agreeing in the main action, 'give light', but differing in the manner of the action, 'by day', 'by night'. This is a compound sentence, partially contracted.

The following are additional examples:—'John and David are here; John is at the door, and David at the window'. 'The river rose, burst the embankment, and flooded the field' (one subject and three predicates). 'Gold is a metal, yellow, heavy, incorrodible, of great value, and used for coin and for ornament.'

4. The Naked Sentence. Parts of Speech: Noun and Verb. A Sentence containing only two words may be called a naked sentence. It contains the kinds of words absolutely essential to a meaning, and no others.

These words are, in Grammar, different Parts of Speech.

'Peter comes', 'fishes swim', 'time flies', 'prudence forbids', are the shortest possible sentences; they are meanings given in the most naked form. One of the words in each expresses by itself the subject—'Peter', 'fishes', 'time', 'prudence'; the second word in each is a complete predicate—'comes', 'swim', 'flies', 'forbids'.

The words for the subjects are, in Grammar, mainly of one kind or class, or one part of speech—the **Noun**: 'Peter', 'fishes', 'time', 'prudence', are nouns.

The words of the predicates are, in Grammar, always of one class, or one part of speech—the Verb: 'comes', 'swim', 'flies', forbids', are verbs."

The predicate word, or verb, has various peculiarities. Among others we may notice here, as never absent, the signification of time; the fact or thing declared is always given as happening in a certain division of time—present, past, future, or, in many cases, during all time: 'Peter comes' (present time), 'James withdrew' (past time), 'fishes swim' (all time).

- From a naked or skeleton sentence we may consider all other sentences to be derived, being, as it were, clothed or filled out, or expanded by additions; and most of the words used for this end belong to other grammatical classes, or different parts of speech.
- 5. Clothing or Filling out. Object.—When the Predicate is clothed or enlarged by naming an object acted on, the word used is still most frequently a Noun:—'the Greeks worshipped Apollo': 'fools waste opportunities'.

'Apollo' and 'opportunities' are nouns. They might serve as the *subjects* of sentences: 'Apollo was the oracular god', 'opportunities occur'.

Transitive and Intransitive Verbs.—This expansion, therefore, does not bring out any new part of speech; the object, like the subject, is a noun, or some form equivalent to a noun. But we thereby determine a distinction among verbs: those that are thus followed by an object are called transitive verbs. because the action is supposed to pass over to some particular thing. Those that give a complete meaning without an object ('the sun shines', 'time flies') are intransitive.

Chief uses of the Noun.—The noun is not confined to the subject or the object of the sentence; it may occur in some other situations; but the chief way to test a noun is to see whether it makes sense when used as a subject or an object. 'John comes', 'send John', make sense; 'will comes', 'send burned', are nonsense; 'will' and 'burned' are not nouns.

6. Enlargement of Subject and Object. The Adjective.—The Subject is enlarged by words that modify its meaning: as 'few men live to be old'; 'all high mountains are imposing'. The word 'few' joined to the noun 'men', to modify its meaning, and the words 'all', 'high', joined to 'mountains', are words of a distinct grammatical class, or Part of Speech, and are called Adjectives.

The Object of a Sentence, when a Noun, may be enlarged or modified in the same way: 'I see bright fires'; 'he commanded many large armies'; 'they

climbed the loftiest peak'. 'Bright', 'many', 'large', 'the', 'loftiest', are Adjectives.

In both places the adjective has the same use—to limit the number of things expressed by a noun, and increase the meaning; 'few' limits the class 'men' to a smaller number; 'high' limits the class mountain, and increases or adds to the meaning or attributes of the class; the things spoken of have everything belonging to the class mountain, and something besides, namely, what is expressed by the word 'high'.

7. Enlargement of Predicate. The Adverb.

—The Predicate may be enlarged or extended by words expressing some attributes or circumstances of action:—'they marched steadily'; 'bring John here'; 'the fruit will soon be ripe'.

The words 'steadily', 'here', 'soon', are of the class, or Part of Speech, called the Adverb.

The adverb modifies, limits, or varies the action of the predicate, or adds something to its signification; the action 'marched' is qualified by the meaning 'steadily', which is something more than mere marching. 'The fruit will be ripe' is changed in meaning by the word 'soon', which limits the time of the ripening. The word 'here' gives the place where John is to be brought to; it is an adverb of place.

These words are called adverbs, because they are attached to verbs, or to the essential word in the predicate of the sentence.

8. Many-worded Adverbs.—The Adverb, instead of being one word, may be made up of two or more words: 'they marched in order'; 'send John to town'; 'the apples will be ripe in a week'. The expressions, 'in order', 'to town', 'in a week', are called Adverbial Phrases.

These phrases serve the very same purpose as the single-worded adverbs: 'in order' states the manner of marching; 'to town' gives the place where John is to go to, being an adverbial phrase of place; 'in a week' is an adverbial phrase of time.

9. The Preposition. — The Adverbial Phrase usually consists of a Noun, and another kind of word connecting the Noun with the Predicate Verb. In the

phrase 'to town', 'town' is a Noun; 'to' is a word of a distinct class, or Part of Speech, named the Preposition.

The prepositions are few in number; they are mostly short words, as 'to', 'from', 'by', 'in', 'on', 'over', 'under', 'with', 'against'. Their original meaning is direction or situation. Applied to a verb of motion, or action, they indicate the direction of the movement, which, however, is in most cases vague or incomplete, unless some object is named; 'come to' is not intelligible without a place or object named; 'come to school', 'we ran to the wood'.

10. The Conjunction.—When two distinct sentences are united by a connecting word, this is of the class, or Part of Speech, called the Conjunction: 'the sun rose, and the clouds dispersed'; 'individuals die, but the race is perpetual'; 'I will come if I can'.

'And', 'but', and 'if', are unlike any of the other parts of speech; they are conjunctions. They are nearly allied to, but yet distinct from, prepositions.

Sentences often follow one another without any connecting

words at all.

II. The Pronoun.—The Subject or the Object of a Sentence may be given by a word of reference: 'John said he would go'; 'launch the boat, and take it across the river'. Such words are of the class, or Part of Speech, named the Pronoun.

'John' is a noun; it names a person by his own name: 'he' is a pronoun, having no meaning of itself, but referring back to the person 'John' previously named. The word would equally apply to any person mentioned in the sentence or clause that goes before.

In like manner a 'boat' names a thing by its own name: when we hear the word we know what is meant. 'It' has no meaning of itself; we must look back to see what thing was last mentioned, namely, a 'boat'. If the thing last mentioned had been 'tree', the word 'it' would have meant a tree.

The pronouns are a small class of words, of very wide application. They are called pronouns, or for-nouns, because they serve instead of nouns. After a person or thing is once mentioned, a second mention may be avoided by using one of the pronouns, which are usually much shorter words than nouns.

### PARTS OF SPEECH.

### THE NOUN.

#### Definition.

1. The Noun is defined by the following marks:—

I. It may be the Subject or the Object of a Sentence: 'the gardener pruned the tree'.

Here 'gardener', the subject of the sentence, and 'tree', the

object, are nouns.

There are other words besides nouns that may be the subject or the object of a sentence. These are pronouns, and the infinitives of the verb. 'He wished to go', 'they like reading', 'talking fatigues us', are sentences whose subjects and objects are not nouns, but pronouns or infinitives: 'he', 'they', 'us', pronouns; 'to go', 'reading', 'talking', infinitives.

Hence some additional characters are necessary to distinguish the noun from the e other parts of speech. The following mark

distinguishes it from the pronoun.

2. II. The Noun is the name of the thing itself, while the Pronoun names by means of a reference.

Thus, 'John', 'kingdom', 'virtue', are the names of things themselves; 'I', 'he', 'it', 'they', 'who', are names that have no meaning, except by referring to something otherwise pointed out or understood.

'Augustus found Rome built of brick, and he left it built of marble.' The subject and the object of the first sentence, 'Augustus', 'Rome', are nouns; they name the actual objects. The subject and the object of the second sentence, 'he', 'it', are pronouns; they name by referring back, one to Augustus, the other to Rome.

To distinguish the noun from any part of the verb, we resort

to the test of inflexion.

3. III. The Noun is changed or inflected for Number, Case, and Gender. The Infinitives of the Verb are not inflected at all. We change 'man' into 'men', 'men's' (Number, Case); 'lion' into 'lioness' (Gender).

Neither the active infinitive forms, 'to love', 'loving', nor the passive infinitives, 'to be loved', 'being loved', are now changed in any way. Other parts of the verb are extensively changed; the chief purpose being to signify time. There is a change for number; there is none for case or for gender.

All nouns are not changed for number, case, and gender; sometimes the meaning, and sometimes the usage, would forbid the change. A large proportion have the plural number; only a few are inflected for case: still fewer are inflected for gender.

a few are inflected for case; still fewer are inflected for gender.

The unchangeable nouns, such as 'goodness', 'gold', must be known from their character and meaning. 'Goodness' is known by the ending 'ness' to be what is called an Abstract noun. 'Gold', 'silver', 'steel', are known by their meaning to be names, or nouns, of Material, which from their nature cannot be plural, and cannot be changed for gender.

On the other hand, the infinitives are limited to a few forms: 'to write', 'to have written', 'writing', 'having written', &c.

#### Classes of Nouns.

- 4. Nouns are divided into five classes.
- I. Proper, Singular, Meaningless Nouns: 'Rome'. 'Jordan', 'Sirius', 'Pharaoh'.

These are called *proper*, because they belong to some one individual thing or person. For the same reason, they are *singular*. 'Rome' is the proper and peculiar name of a single city.

They are called meaningless, in contrast to the next class.

### Examples of Proper Nouns.

Persons: Noah, Aristotle, Cæsar, Luther, Shakespeare.
Places, Buildings, Machines, notable Objects: Europe, Mediterranean, Lebanon, Thames, Malakoff, Mons Meg, Koh-i-noor.
Days, Months, Festivals: Monday, May, Christmas.
Branches of Knowledge: Algebra, Physics, Botany, Heraldry.
Discases: Catarrh, Typhus, Pleurisy, Aneurism, Diphtheria.

5. II. Common, General, Significant Nouns: 'city', 'river', 'star', 'king'.

Whereas the name 'Rome' applies only to one object, the name 'city' is common to many objects; it is a name for Rome, Paris, London, York, and a great many others. The reason of its being used for all these objects in common, is that they resemble one another: Rome, Paris, and London, are things of the same kind, they are inhabited places, each under one authority; to them, and to all such, the name 'city' is applied. It is thus common to a great number of things, instead of being restricted to one; it is general, or the name of a kind or class, instead of being individual; it is significant, or has a meaning, because when applied to any thing, it tells us that that thing has a certain character. To say that Jerusalem is a 'city', is to say that it resembles Rome, Paris, London, Dublin, &c., and possesses the known characters common to all these.

A proper noun is a mere mark or sign to designate a thing, and no more; 'Jordan' is a mark for a particular object, and, if never used for anything else, it recalls that object alone. A common noun, 'river', is a name and something more; it tells us what sort of thing is named: 'a body of running water, rising in the mountains, and flowing to the sea'. 'River' is thus general, while 'Jordan' is particular: the one has a signification, or is significant; the other has no signification, it is

meaningless.

Many, probably almost all, proper nouns were originally significant, conveying some particular meaning. This was first of all pre-eminently connected with a single individual, and then came by-and-by to be applied to this individual alone. In the long run, this signification was dropt, and the name was regarded simply as the distinctive designation of the particular object. Whatever meaning 'Jordan' may have had at first, it is nothing more now than a mark to know a certain geographical object by it implies no qualities whatever. 'Moses' is a meaningless name, serving to point out a great Jewish leader and lawgiver; it does not necessarily recall the fact of his having been drawn out of the water, and it may be applied at will in new cases without reference to that fact. 'Ehrenbreitstein', 'broad stone of honour', has passed to the stage of a mere geographical name, and as such is purely meaningless.

The most characteristic proper nouns are those that have been used for one thing alone, and have never been applied to anything else. Such are a few names of persons and places, as (in all probability) Nebuchadnezzar, Rome, Sahara, Gibraltar. These are proper, singular, and meaningless, in the full sense of the terms; proper, as the exclusive property of a single object; singular, for the same reason; meaningless, because, unlike the names—king, city, desert, port—they convey no

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as well as meaningless name. To make proper names still more decisively individual, triple or quadruple designations may be used. Combinations of two—William Brown, George Brown, David Smith—must often recur; combinations of three would be much rarer—William George Brown, David Samuel Smith, are comparatively infrequent. When the middle names are surnames, and not of the more limited class of ordinary Christian names—as John Stanley Smith—they are still less likely to apply to a plurality of persons. When we make a combination that is used for only one person, present or past, that combination is, in the strictest sense, proper, singular, and meaningless.

6. Singular and Significant Names.—Some Singular objects have names that are significant; as 'Providence', for the Deity, 'Nature', 'Fate'.

These are very rare instances, and belong rather to the poetic and rhetorical employment of language than to the ordinary uses of words. The word 'providence' is significant because it is applicable to many things, in virtue of their resemblance; the act or quality of 'providence' is shown on many occasions. As a moral virtue it may be manifested by a number of different persons. But, by what is called a figure of speech, the word has a special application to the one Being that shows the quality in an extraordinary or infinite degree.

A singular object may have a significant designation, when several significant names are joined together, so as to apply to only one person or thing. 'Sovereign' is general and significant; it applies to many persons: 'our sovereign' singles out one; the adjective 'our', by its limiting force, selects from the class one individual.

It is the function of the adjective thus to narrow or limit a class of things, and the limitation is sometimes pushed to individuality. 'Powerful sovereign' is more limited than 'sovereign', but still the designation is not singular; neither is 'reigning sovereign'. 'The reigning sovereign' is singular, through the peculiar force of the article 'the', which is, by pre-eminence, an individualising word, as will be afterwards explained.

7. Class Names are the same as General and Significant Names.

The objects of natural history are arranged in classes; are rocks, metals, palms, birds, apes. So, in geography, there are the classes—seas, mountains, rivers, plains, deserts. Many other objects are spoken of as classes, as the nobles, lawyers,

traders. These names are all general and significant; they are the names common to a great number of individuals, in virtue of resemblance or similarity. All the bodies called 'metals' resemble each other in a number of points; 'nobles' have peculiarities in common, which are absent from other classes of the community.

8. III. Collective Nouns: as 'nation', 'regiment', 'fleet', 'senate', 'shoal'.

The Collective noun is the name of a great number of individuals taken as one mass, and spoken of as a single object. A 'nation' contains thousands, and perhaps millions, of individual men and women; but it is spoken of as one object, because they are supposed to go all together. A 'fleet' contains many ships, all under one command, and keeping together for one purpose. 'The fleet was victorious', means that the ships combined to gain a victory.

Other examples.—Parliament was opened by the Queen. The clan was mustered. The mob was dispersed. The Spanish Armada was unsuccessful. The meeting is large. The jury finds the prisoner guilty. The court has passed sentence. The society is soon to meet. The board is about to issue regulations. The committee was not called.

Collective names are also general and significant names; for there may be a number of collections of the same things. There are many fleets, armies, regiments, clans, hosts, swarms; and as the individual fleets, armies, &c., resemble each other, the names are general and significant. Hence all these nouns are both collective and general.

Nouns of Multitude.—Sometimes when the collective noun is used, the things are spoken of individually and separately, as if it were a class noun. 'The jury were kept without food', means that the jurymen were so kept; because the action of taking food cannot apply to a whole body collectively, but only to men individually. These collective nouns are sometimes called nouns of MULTITUDE. They occasion difficulties in Syntax, as will be afterwards explained (SYNTAX, Concord of Subject and Verb).

Peasantry, tenantry, youth, nobility, sisterhood, are examples of collective nouns that may also be nouns of multitude.

9. IV. Material Nouns: as 'iron', 'clay', 'wheat', 'water', 'snow'.

'Iron' is the name for all the iron existing everywhere, viewed as a single collection. 'Water' is the name for all water.

Material nouns have thus a resemblance to collective nouns. The difference is, that the material masses are more continuous, or less regularly divided than collections of objects. Compare 'water' with 'fleet'; 'iron', 'coal', 'sand', with 'artillery'

(collective).

Again, the material noun must be singular, because there cannot be two complete or exhaustive collections of one material: silver' is all existing silver. Unlike the collective noun, the material noun cannot be a class name. Different materials may be united in a class, by their resemblance; as, when gold, silver, iron, &c., make the class 'metal'; but 'metal' is in every respect a general and significant noun, and is not either a collective or a material noun.

Examples of Material Nouns.—Rock, stone, slate, marble, granite, sand, mud, lead, brass, zinc, copper, platinum, gold, salt, alum, soap, potash, butter, ham, tea, sugar, rice, tobacco, bread, linen, flax, cotton, hemp, paper, wine, beer, brandy, chloroform, arsenic, cloud, mist, dew, hoar-frost.

The names of diseases have been classed under proper nouns. There is also some resemblance between them and nouns of material. In grammatical construction, they agree with proper, material, and abstract nouns, and differ from the class noun. We do not say  $\alpha$  typhus, typhuses. 'Fever' is sometimes a class noun, and used in the plural, implying that there are various kinds of fever.

Apparent Plurals of Material Nouns.—When strictly used, the material noun cannot be plural, for the reasons given. Yet, occasionally, we find such nouns used in the plural, as sands, wines, teas. This happens in three ways.

(1). When the material name is used to designate the things made of it; as tins for certain utensils made of tin; papers for what gives the news.

(2). When, instead of the whole collection, detached portions

of it are meant; as stones, slates, peats, clouds, lights.

(3). When a material is divided into distinct kinds, or varieties; as wines, teas, sugars, salts, cottons, soaps, earths, waters. This is the commonest case of the material noun used in the plural.

In such cases the noun can be used in the singular with 'a'

before it: a tin, a stone, a wine, a sugar, a water.

These nouns are then to be parsed as class or general nouns, thus:—'The botanist studies the grasses, and has found a new grass' (general noun). 'The cow eats grass' (material noun). 'They had fish (material noun) for dinner'; 'they are four fishes' (general noun).

When number is thought of, we have a plural: 'two men are in the room'. When quantity is thought of, even when expressed in number, we have the singular: 'twenty pounds was the sum charged'.

10. V. Abstract Nouns: as 'length', 'roundness', 'whiteness', 'health', 'regularity', 'bravery', 'temperance', 'wisdom'.

When we examine an actually existing thing, as a house, a lion, we find that it has many different properties; a house is high, it is long, it is broad, it is either old or new, and so on. We may look at it, and consider the height, without thinking of the length, or the width, or the colour, or the age, or the newness. In so doing we are said to abstract the height from the other properties. So, in turn, we might consider the length or the breadth, each by itself, without expressly thinking of anything else; we should then abstract the length, or the breadth, as the case might be. These words—height, length, breadth, are called Abstract Nouns.

So with a lion. We might, in looking at the lion, think separately and particularly of his size, or of his shape, or of his colour, or of his strength, or of his fierceness; and, when thinking of him in each one of these aspects, we should be inattentive to the other points, although we could not entirely keep away the impression of them. These names, therefore, are abstract nouns.

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Concrete Names.—As contrasted with the abstract names, the 'house' and the 'lion', each considered in all its properties together, are named by concrete names. All class nouns, which are also common, general, and significant nouns, are concrete nouns. Material nouns are likewise concrete.

For every separate power, property, attribute, or aspect of a thing in the concrete, there is an abstract designation, signifying that we are attending more to that property than to any of the others inseparably joined with it. A mountain (concrete) has height, length, width, shape, colour, weight, age—all abstract.

A man has height, weight, shape, colour, age, strength, hunger, taste, courage, skill, virtuousness or viciousness, and many other qualities, which, when spoken of by themselves, are qualities in the abstract, and are named by abstract nouns.

II. Abstract Nouns are mostly derived from Adjectives; as 'length', from long, 'roundness', from round, 'regularity', from regular.

The adjective expresses a property or attribute in combination with the concrete noun-long road, round tower, wise man. When the property is stated as an abstract noun—length, roundness, wisdom, the noun is a derivative from the adjective: 'long' becomes 'length', 'round' becomes 'roundness'.

The larger number of abstract nouns are derived from adjective.

tives, by the addition of 'ness'; black, blackness; brightness, righteousness, foolishness, boldness, graciousness. This is the

chief English or Saxon ending.

A few have the old Saxon termination 'th': truth, width,

strength, wealth, health, death.

Many abstract nouns of Latin origin end in 'ty': quality, nobility, beauty, curiosity, verity, honesty, probity, temerity, rapidity, veracity, cupidity, stupidity.

Another class end in 'ce': prudence, patience, temperance,

violence, benevolence, beneficence, magnificence, maleficence,

malevolence, justice.

12. Other Abstract Nouns are formed from Verbs; as 'occupation', 'relief', 'conference', 'choice', 'service'.

'Occupation' is from the verb 'occupy', and expresses the action of the verb, like the infinitive 'to occupy', or 'occupying'.

'Relief' is from the verb 'relieve' and is nearly the same as

the infinitives 'to relieve,' 'relieving'.

Bacon says, 'Reading maketh a full man, conference a ready man'. 'Reading' and 'conference' both express the action of the verb—the one, 'reading', is an infinitive, or else a verbal abstract noun, the other, 'conference' is a verbal abstract noun; 'conferring' would have been the exact parallel of 'reading'.

Further examples. - Possession, abduction, malediction, con-

struction, election, proof, sense, work, revival, reproach.

In such forms as 'election by lot', 'vote by ballot', the nouns are the same as the infinitives of verbs: 'clecting by casting lots', 'voting by balloting', 'worship (worshipping) is a part of religion'.

13. Abstract Nouns are by nature Singular. When they are used in the Plural, they are converted into common or general nouns.

They then mean particular examples, acts, or exercises.

'Length' is an abstract noun (adjective abstract). It is naturally singular. When we say 'a length' and 'lengths', we

make it a class or general noun, but the meaning is changed; instead of length in the abstract, we take a particular measure.

as a yard length, a field length.

'Colour' is abstract, as in 'colour adds to the pleasures of the eye', 'the colour of the sea'; it is a class or general name in 'the colours of the rainbow', which means different species or varieties of colour.

'Friendship' is abstract, the state of being and having a friend. 'A friendship', 'friendships' are the singular and plural of a class noun, meaning special or particular relations of

friendship.

'Life', abstract; 'a life' and 'lives', common or general. 'They were lovely and pleasant in their lives, and in their death (abstract) they were not divided.' 'Liberty', abstract; 'liberties', common—forms or kinds of liberty. 'Hold your peaces', 'I drink all your good healths'.

Other examples.—Art, grace, beauty, curiosity, pleasure, passion, feeling, will, memory, industry, government, society, severity, belief, proof, reason, virtue, genius, trial, error, resist-

ance, service.

#### Uses of the Noun.

- 14. The typical application of the Noun to name the Subject or the Object of the sentence, is the basis of the Definition. (§ 1.)
- 15. Nouns are also used to complete the Predicate, with certain verbs of incomplete meaning. 'He is a shoemaker'; 'they are fugitives'; 'Napoleon was elected Emperor'. The fact is not stated with complete sense by the verb alone without the added nouns.
- 16. Nouns occur very often in prepositional phrases, that is, expressions made up of preposition and noun (or some equivalent of a noun). 'A man of-virtue', 'cases of-the-utmost-difficulty', 'he came ingreat-haste'.
- 17. Nouns are very extensively used as Adjectives:—'sea monsters', 'field guns', 'a foot race', 'garden walls'.

This usage is a very great abbreviation, by ellipsis and rearrangement. 'Monsters that live in the sea' is shortened to

'monsters living in the sea', 'monsters in (or of) the sea'; and, finally, the only important word is retained and put in the regular position of the typical noun-qualifying word, the Adjective, 'sea monsters'. Compare the use of the formal adjective: 'marine monsters'.

The Possessive of the Noun (See Inflexion) is practically an Adjective: 'the King's command' is the same as 'the royal command'; 'a soldier's life' is 'a military life'.

#### Substitutes for the Noun.

- 18. Pronouns regularly take the place of the Noun. (See p. 25, and following).
- 19. Adjectives are often converted into nouns; as 'the deep', 'the future', 'an imbecile', 'extremes', 'the originals'.

Such examples are to be regarded as cases of ellipsis; a noun, being readily understood, is omitted, and the adjective thereupon assumes the force of the noun, and may even be inflected as a noun. The full forms of the examples given would be: 'the deep sea', 'the future time', 'an imbecile person', 'extreme positions, opinions, measures', &c., 'the original documents, pictures', &c.

The noun thus formed is often abstract, as in Greek and 'Latin: 'the true' for 'truth', 'the beautiful' for 'beauty'.

20. The Infinitive forms of the Verb are frequently used for nouns. 'To be united is to be strong' is the same as 'union is strength'; 'to delay (or delaying) is dangerous' may be said in place of 'delay is dangerous'.

The infinitive form is more simple than the corresponding abstract noun, and it is better adapted for taking on adjuncts that modify the action expressed.

21. Adverbs are in a few instances turned into nouns; as 'the ayes have it', 'the ups and downs of life', 'an eternal now', 'the how, the when, and the why', 'since then'.

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We means the speaker, and others associated with him.

In oral address only one can speak at a time, but that one, speaking for others as well as for himself, says 'we'. The foreman of a jury addresses the judge in the words, 'We find the prisoner guilty'. In written composition 'we' is more strictly correct, because the parties signing their names at the end are all equally supposed to be uttering their sentiments.

Persons in very high authority, in issuing their commands, often use 'we' instead of 'I'; as, 'We, Nicholas, Autocrat of

all the Russias'.

In anonymous writing, as in newspapers and magazines, the writer speaks as 'we'. This is called the editorial 'we'.

'We is used in speaking for humanity generally: 'we fancy

that we shall always feel as we do now'.

2. Thou is addressed to one person.

In the usages of our language this word is obsolete, except in the following cases:—

(1.) In addressing the Almighty: 'Thou art the Lord alone'.

(2.) In poetical use: 'O thou that rollest in heaven above'.

(3.) In expressing familiarity and contempt: 'Thou vile creature'.

(4.) In the language of the Society of Friends.

You is the ordinary pronoun of the second person for one or more persons.

Ye is employed for elevation: 'Ye hills and dales'.

'Nor you, ye Proud, impute to these the fault.'

Also in familiarity: 'Ye need not wait'.

- 3. II. Demonstrative Pronouns: 'he', 'she', 'it'; 'they'; 'this', 'that'.
- 4. He is the pronoun of the male sex in man and in the higher animals, and in personified objects.

'Henry found that he was mistaken.' Speaking of the lion, we say, 'he is very strong'; of the sun, 'he is risen', 'he is eclipsed'.

5. She is the pronoun of the feminine gender in man and in animals, and in personified objects.

'Elizabeth knew she could have her own way'; 'when the lioness sees her cubs in danger she flies to their help'; of France we can say 'she has experienced many vicissitudes'.

6. It is the pronoun of the neuter gender, referring to things without life, and to living beings that have no sex. 'The house is near; let us go to it'.

When a human being or an animal is mentioned, without marking the gender, 'it' is the pronoun used:
—'It is a healthy child.' 'Where's the dog! I have missed it'.

All objects spoken of, that have no sex, or whose sex is over-looked, are signified by 'it':—'Bring the light; put it on the table'; 'I went to the river; it was swollen'; 'Lo, where it (the ghost) comes again!'

#### The Modes of Reference of 'It'.

The modes of reference of this pronoun are various, and lead to conflicts of meaning.

- I. The Backward or Retrospective reference, to a noun, an infinitive, or a clause.
- 1. The usual form of this is to some single noun going before, as in the examples given.
- 2. An Infinitive phrase, which is equivalent to a noun, may also be pointed back to.
- 'To resist your acts was necessary as it (namely, to resist your acts) was just'; 'to invoke your pity would be as useless as I should hold it (namely, to invoke your pity) mean'.
- 3. Another mode of backward reference, less frequently occurring, is to a clause.
- 'The day will be fine; no one doubts it.' Here the antecedent is not the noun 'day', but the whole assertion or clause 'the day will be fine'. 'I have done the state some service, and they know it,' means that they know the fact that 'I have done the state some service'.

The reference may be still more comprehensive, as when at the end of a long narrative, the hearer says, 'never mind it'; 'who would have thought it?'

II. The Forward or Anticipating reference. The subject of the reference in this application is very seldom a noun, it is either a phrase or a clause.

1. The anticipating of a single noun by 'it' is a rhetorical device rather than an ordinary form of plain prose.

'Surely, if needful, it is also frightful, this machine'; 'tis entirely of the earth that passion'. The plain straightforward form is: 'this machine is also frightful', 'that passion is entirely of the earth'.

There are also such examples as the following:—'it is surprising the little progress we made'. This, however, is in reality a transmuted clause; if expressed in the full and regular form, the sentence would stand thus:—'it is surprising how little we advanced—that we made so little progress'.

- 2. The infinitive phrase is extremely common.
- 'It is healthy to walk'; 'it is useless debating'; 'it is vain to make excuses'.
- 3. The noun clause is also most frequently anticipated by 'it'.
- 'It is probable that the day will be fine'; 'it is said that our army has gained a victory'. The clauses are most commonly introduced by the conjunction 'that', but other conjunctions may be employed:—'It is uncertain if (or whether, or when) he will come'; 'it is laid down how far we should go, and what or how much we should ask'.

This use of 'it' gives us something of the power of inversion belonging to languages different in structure from ours, and thus takes away an imperfection of our language as compared with these others. The idiom 'there is' has the same effect.

#### III. The Indefinite reference.

This is carried to the utmost in the sayings, 'it rains', 'what is it?' 'how is it with you?' 'it is all over with us', 'they lord it', 'we roughed it in the back woods', 'he stars it in the provinces', 'trip it as ye go'. In such cases, there is scarcely a possibility of assigning any precise object, circumstance or fact, as an antecedent or reference. We can only in some circuitous way suppose that there is some action in the distance that leads to the employing of the pronoun. 'What's doing outside?' some one asks, with reference to the weather, and the answer is 'it rains': a short way of saying that the action or on-going in the matter of weather, is the fall of rain.

This vagueness explains the use of the pronoun in violation of the concords of gender and number:—'It was he, not she, that I saw'.

<sup>&</sup>quot;Tis they that give the great Atrides spoils."

The pronoun 'it' thus appears to have at least three distinct modes of reference in common use: 1st, to a simple subject, or noun, going before; 2nd, to a phrase or a clause going before; 3rd, to a phrase or a clause coming after. Hence we are often in great perplexity to say which of several possible references a writer has in view when he uses the word. 'When wit hath any mixture of raillery, it is but calling it banter, and the thing is done.' Here we judge from the meaning that the first 'it' is forward or anticipative, and the second backward or retrospective. The full illustration of this difficulty, and of the various modes of obviating it are given elsewhere (Companion to the Higher Grammar, pp. 43-50); at the same time we append here a few typical examples. We may farther remark that the relative 'which' has the same twofold reference, retrospectively, to a single subject or to a whole phrase or clause.

Further examples of the Pronoun 'it'.—We have seen that the variety of reference of this pronoun is a frequent cause of ambiguity. The peculiar idiom 'it is', 'it appears', 'it is said', 'it comes to pass', followed by the thing referred to, makes a clash of meaning such as does not occur with the other pronouns. 'I am going to mention the matter. It is right that it should be mentioned.' The first 'it' here is prospective, and refers to the clause 'that it should be mentioned'; the second refers back to 'the matter'.

'It had been well both for England and (for) Scotland that there had been more of such good and moderate kings, as it would have prevented many long wars.' 'It' in both instances points to the same clause—'that there had been more of such good and moderate kings'—but the first precedes, and the other follows the clause.

'There are so many advantages of speaking one's own language well, and being a master of it, that let a man's calling be what it will, it cannot but be worth our taking some pains in it.' The variety of reference here is very great. The first 'it' has 'language' for its antecedent, the prominent subject of the previous clause, and is therefore unexceptionable; the second 'it' readily refers us to the noun immediately preceding, 'calling'; the third is an indefinite reference rather than a reference to 'language'; and the fourth carries us back to 'language'. To remedy the confusion, the third 'it' should be done away with, and the second removed to the end: 'the advantages of speaking one's own language well are so many, that the taking of some pains to be master of it, cannot but be worth while to every man, let his calling be what it will'. The pronouns remaining are so placed that their antecedents are obvious. Even the second 'it' may be easily dispensed'

with by changing the last clause to 'whatever may be his

calling '.

When we intend to employ the prospective 'it', 'it is', &c., we should not bring the retrospective use into collision with the other. 'The best way in the world for a man to seem to be anything is really to be what he would seem to be. Besides that, it is many times as troublesome to make good the pretence of a good quality as to have it; and if a man have it not, it is ten to one but he is discovered to want it, and then all his pains and labours to seem to have it are lost.' Here the two modes of reference are inextricably confused together. One of them ought to be done away with. 'Besides, to make good the pretence of a good quality is many times as troublesome as to have it; and if a man have it not, ten to one but he is discovered to want it, and then all his pains and labour to seem to have it are lost.' The sole reference now is to the one subject 'quality'.

'If it were spoken with never so great skill in the actor, the manner of uttering that sentence could have nothing in it which could strike any but people of the greatest humanity—nay, people elegant and skilful in observations upon it.' The first 'it' refers to 'sentence', the others to 'manner'. The first might be left out, the clause being converted into a participial expression which would be readily interpreted as in connection with 'that sentence': 'if spoken with never so great skill'.

'It is a sign of great prudence to be willing to receive instruction; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of it.' 'Willingness to receive instruction is a sign of great prudence; the most intelligent persons sometimes stand in need of it'—is better; although the natural antecedent would still be, not 'instruction', but 'willingness'. Or the first 'it' may stand, and the repetition of 'instruction' be saved by the use of another noun of much the same meaning; as 'information and suggestion'.

- 7. They is the plural of 'He' and 'She' applied to persons, and of 'It' applied to things.
- 'I met the soldiers; they were on the march.' 'I saw his daughters; they were in the field.' 'Gold, silver, and platinum are the noble metals; they are so called because they do not rust.'
- 8. This and That are properly Demonstrative Adjectives.

They usually have a noun expressed or understood, as 'I take this place, you take that'. In the first clause, the noun 'place'

is expressed, in the second it is understood; in the one, 'this' is an Adjective, in the other, 'that' may be classified as either

an Adjective or a Demonstrative Pronoun.

The case where 'that' seems to have most of the nature of a true pronoun is seen in the following sentences; 'he mistook his own room for that of the stranger': 'the song of the nightingale is more various than that of the thrush'. This is a form derived from the French; our native idioms applicable to the case, which are to be preferred when they can be used, are, 1st, to repeat the noun,—'his own room for the stranger's room'; and 2nd, to use the possessive without the noun,—'for the stranger's'. The possessive inflexion being so rarely in use, we are thrown principally upon the first form when we wish to keep clear of the Gallicism.

In the line, 'to be, or not to be, that is the question', 'that' may be considered as a pronoun, having a whole clause for the antecedent, as we have seen with the demonstrative 'it'. We might still consider the word as an adjective with a noun dropped, or put in a different place, and so look upon the passage as an abbreviation of 'to be, or not to be—that question is it'. 'One thing have I desired of the Lord, that (thing) I will seek after.'

'This' is of the nature of a pronoun in the phrases 'before this', 'after this'; there being, however, an ellipsis of 'time'.

For the full illustration of the various uses of 'this' and 'that', see the Companion to the Higher Grammar, pp. 52-61.

9. Certain Pronouns of Demonstrative signification are called Indefinite, from signifying not any particular subject, but persons or things taken generally. Such are One and They: 'one cannot be sure of that'; 'any of the little ones'.

They is also used colloquially in this indefinite sense: 'they say that the harvest is good'; but 'the harvest is said to be

good' is better English.

In the first example, one is a special application of the numeral, taking the place of the old indefinite 'man', perhaps under some slight influence of the French on, which is a corruption of homme—man. When the subject of the verb is unknown, or of little consequence, the French use on, as cn dit—'it is said' (by no one in particular); 'on commence à ériger'—'people begin to build'; it being no matter who are to be employed, provided the work is done. We use the passive voice in such cases: 'the building is begun'. We employ 'one' in somewhat different circumstances. Thus, if we were putting

a supposition by way of argument or illustration, we might give it in the following forms: 'suppose I were to lose my way in a wood'; or, 'suppose you were to lose your way'; or, 'suppose one were to lose one's way'. All are made use of, but as a general rule, the last is preferred as a matter of good taste. The first is objectionable as verging on egotism, the second as using freedoms with another person, whereas the third is indifferent. 'If one's honesty were impeached, what should one do?' is a politer mode of making the supposition than to take either one's self, or the person addressed, for the example.

'One' should be followed by 'one', and not by 'he'. 'What one sees or feels, one cannot but be sure that one sees or feels.' This may sound stiff, but the following is lax: 'the better acquainted one is with any kind of rhetorical trick, the less

liable he is to be misled by it'.

In the second example given above—'the little ones'—'one' is the numeral employed in the manner of a pronoun, by indicating something that has gone before (or perhaps has to come after): 'I like peaches, but I must have a ripe one, or some ripe ones'.

Other adjectives are used in almost the same way; as 'give me one or two'; 'I will take either, or neither, or both, or any

one, or some, or all, or none'.

'Such' and 'same' are employed as demonstrative pronouns: 'if you are a man, show yourself such'. The use of 'same' in common style is inelegant. The adverbs, 'so', 'thus', 'then', 'there', 'here', 'hence', 'thence', 'hither', 'thither', serve the purpose of the demonstratives: 'do so then', for 'do it', or 'do that'; 'and if so be that he find it'.

10. Compound Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns—Reflexive. The word self enters into compounds with both the Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns; as 'myself', 'thyself', 'ourself', 'ourselves', 'himself', 'herself', 'itself', 'oneself', or 'one's self', 'themselves'. These are called Reflexive Pronouns.

The true reflexive use is seen in cases like 'I hurt myself', 'he does himself injustice', 'mind yourself'; the action of the subject being turned back upon himself, so that he is object as well. These pronouns also impart emphasis: as 'I myself', 'he himself', 'they themselves'; and this is the original application. Both the intensive or emphatic and the strictly reflexive use appear in Tennyson's line: "And I myself sometimes despise myself".

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There are several other words that answer the purpose of relatives; '(such) as', 'but', 'when', 'where', 'whither', 'whence', and the compounds, 'whoever', 'whoso', 'whosoever', 'whichsoever', 'whatsoever', 'whenever', 'whensoever'. &c.

17. A Relative Pronoun stands for a noun, or subject otherwise mentioned, with the power of a conjunction besides. It joins sentences and clauses by referring back directly to something just named.

In the sentence, 'I found an old acquaintance, whom I had not seen for some time'; 'whom' is the same as 'and him I had not seen'. 'I do not know what you say' is equivalent to 'I do not know that that you say', 'you say that, but I do not know that'.

18. Who and its compounds, 'whoso', 'whoever', 'whosoever', apply to persons; and 'who' sometimes applies to the higher animals.

In the earliest English, 'who' was interrogative. The inflected forms 'whose' and 'whom' appear as relatives in the 12th century; 'who' itself was much later in being used as a relative, and did not freely act as such till the 16th century.

In the Elizabethan times 'who' was not unfrequently applied to lifeless objects; mostly, perhaps, with a feeling of personification. Shakespeare has: 'a gentle flood, who, being stopped, the bounding banks o'erflows'; 'the winds, who take the ruftian billows by the tops'; and such like.

- 'Who' is commonly applied in two very different significations.
- I. To connect two co-ordinate sentences: as 'I met the watchman, who told me there had been a fire'.

Here the two sentences are distinct and independent; in such

a case 'and he' might have been substituted for 'who'.

Another form of the same use is when the second clause is of the kind termed adverbial, where we may still resolve 'who' into a personal or demonstrative pronoun and a conjunction. 'Why should we consult Charles, who (for he, seeing that he) knows nothing of the matter?'

II. In modern use, more especially in books, 'who' is frequently employed to introduce a clause intended to restrict, define, limit, or explain a noun (or its equivalent); as 'that is the man who spoke to us yesterday'.

Here the clause introduced by 'who' is necessary to define or explain the antecedent 'the man'; without it we do not know who 'the man' is. Such relative clauses are typical adjective clauses: i.e., they have the same effect as adjectives in limiting nouns. This may be called the **restrictive** use of the relative.

Now it will be found that the practice of our most idiomatic writers and speakers is to prefer 'that' to 'who' in this application; whereas, for the other meaning, 'that' would be less proper.

19. Which refers to lifeless objects. The compounds, 'whichever' and 'whichsoever', may refer also to persons.

Though originally interrogative, 'which' appears very early as a relative; and this use was confirmed and extended by French influence. By the 13th century it was not uncommon.

The exclusion of 'which' from reference to persons (compare 'which' interrogative, § 13), has become more and more strict, since the end of the 17th century. Before then the application of 'which' to persons was quite common. 'Our Father which art in Heaven', is a familiar representative of numerous examples in the Bible. Even Tennyson wrote: 'The one true lover which you ever had'; but the newest edition (1878) reads 'The one true lover whom you ever own'd'.

'Which' is employed with reference to things in both the senses just given of 'who' with reference to persons.

First, in co-ordinate sentences, where 'it', or 'they', and a conjunction might answer the purpose; thus, 'at school I studied geometry, which (and it) I found useful afterwards'. Here the new clause is something independent added to the previous clause, and not limiting that clause in any way. So in the adverbial clause, as 'he struck the poor dog, which (and or although it) had never done him harm'. Such instances represent the most accurate meaning of 'which', as of 'who'; and accordingly, we might term these the co-ordinating relatives.

'Which' is likewise used in restrictive clauses that limit or explain its antecedent; as 'the house which he built still remains'. Here the clause introduced by 'which' specifies, or points out, the house that is the subject of the statement, namely, by the circumstance that a certain person built it. As remarked with regard to 'who', our most idiomatic writers prefer 'that' in this particular application, and would say 'the house that he built remains'.

There is a special reference of 'which' attaching to it as the neuter relative.

'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon, which was in effect a declaration of war'. The antecedent to 'which' in this instance is not the 'Rubicon', but the entire clause, 'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon'; this fact being what amounted to war. It will be remembered that the neuter demonstrative 'it' in like manner may have a clause for its antecedent (. 6): we might say 'Cæsar crossed the Rubicon when nobody expected it'; 'it' referring still to the fact of Cæsar's crossing, and not to the 'Rubicon'. Now this meaning of 'which' is not one of the meanings of the relative 'that' as a retrospective pronoun, although 'that' may apply to things as well as to persons.

There is a peculiar usage where 'which' may seem to be still regularly used in reference to persons; as in 'John is a a soldier, which I should also like to be', that is, 'and I should also like to be a soldier'. But although the complement of the verb is here in the form of a noun, the usual form is the adjective; and examples like these may be regarded as similar to the following, where the reference is to an adjective: 'He turned quite white from red, which he had been '—that is, 'he had been red'. The demonstratives 'this', 'that', 'such', 'so', as well as 'either', 'neither', and 'both', are used similarly.

The form 'the which', so common in the Elizabethan period, occurs early in the 14th century, as equivalent to the French lequel, laquelle. It obtained much more favour than the companion form 'the whom'. 'The whose' was also used.

### 20. 'That' is the proper restrictive, explicative, limiting, or defining relative.

'That,' the neuter of the definite article, was early in use as a neuter relative. All the other oldest relatives gradually dropt away, and 'that' came to be applied also to plural antecedents, and to masculines and feminines. When 'as', 'which', and 'who', came forward to share the work of 'that', there seems to

have arisen not a little uncertainty about the relatives, and we find curious double forms: 'whom that', 'which that', 'which as', &c. Gower has 'Venus whose priest that I am'; Chaucer writes—'This Abbot which that was an holy man,' 'his love the which that he oweth'. By the Elizabethan period, these double forms have disappeared, and all the relatives are used singly without hesitation. From then till now, 'that' has been struggling with 'who' and 'which' to regain superior favour, with varying success.

The best writers often appear to grope after a separate employment for the several relatives. 'Who' is used for persons, 'which' for things, in both numbers; so is 'that'; and the only opportunity of a special application of 'that' lies in the important distinction between co-ordination and restriction. Now, as 'who 'and 'which 'are most commonly preferred for co-ordination, it would be a clear gain to confine them to this sense and to reserve 'that' for the restrictive application alone. This arrangement, then, would fall in with the most general use

of 'that', especially beyond the limits of formal composition.

The use of 'that' solely as restrictive, with 'who' and 'which' solely as co-ordinating, also avoids amoiguities that often attend the indiscriminate use of 'who' and 'which' for co-ordinate and for restrictive clauses. Thus, when we say, 'his conduct surprised his English friends, who had not known him long', we may mean either that his English friends generally were surprised (the relative being, in that case, co-ordinating), or that only a portion of them—namely, the particular portion that had not known him long—were surprised. In this last case the relative is meant to define or explain the antecedent, and the doubt would be removed by writing thus: 'his English friends that had not known him long.' So in the following sentence there is a similar ambiguity in the use of 'which': 'the next winter which you will spend in town will give you opportunities of making a more prudent choice. This may mean, either 'you will spend next winter in town' ('which' being co-ordinating), or 'the next of the winters when you are to live in town,' let that come when it may. In the former case 'which' is the proper relative; in the latter case the meaning is restrictive or defining, and would be best brought out by 'that': 'the

next winter that you will spend in town'.

A further consideration in favour of employing 'that' for explicative clauses is the unpleasant effect arising from the too frequent repetition of 'who' and 'which'. Grammarians often recommend 'that' as a means of varying the style; but this end ought to be sought in subservience to the still greater end f perspicuity.

21. What and its compounds, 'whatever' and 'whatsoever', apply to things.

In the oldest English 'what' was interrogative (§ 14). For the regular relative use in application to things, the other relatives were sufficient, and 'what' was not very extensively employed. Some such instances as these might be cited: 'The matter what other men wrote', 'nothing what can be said against me', 'that what I have always maintained'.

The transition from the interrogative form to such examples as the following is easy: 'Look, what I speak, my life shall prove it true'; 'what he bids, that thou shalt do'. The omission of the demonstrative then gives the usual form: 'what I speak my life shall prove true'; 'what he bids thou shalt do. Or, in natural order: 'thou shalt do what he bids'. This is obviously equal to 'thou shalt do that which (or that) he bids'; and hence 'what' is commonly described as practically a compound relative, combining as it were both relative and antecedent. The antecedent is regularly suppressed, except in certain inverted forms.

In such expressions as the following, 'what' may be put for 'that which', and is generally an improvement: 'In certain cases we refrain from doing that which we have a natural desire to do, or force ourselves to do that to which we feel a

repugnance '.

#### Substitutes for the Proper Relatives.

22. As, preceded by Such or by Same, has the force of a relative, applying to both persons and things, and always with an explicative or restrictive signification.

'The curse denounced upon such as removed ancient landmarks': this might have been 'them that', or 'those that', but not so properly 'who'. 'He offered me the same conditions as the offered you': 'the same conditions that' would be equally good; 'the same conditions which', though common, may be considered inferior.

The true relative force lies, not in 'such' and 'same', but in 'as'. By the 14th century 'as' sometimes took the place of 'that' in the ordinary construction, without a preceding 'such' or 'same'; but this usage did not continue in favour with writers, though it is still familiar in provincial and vulgar English: 'the man as (= that) rides to market'. In the oldest English, 'such' was followed by 'such' (swilc . . swilc). King Alfred used 'such . . which' (swelc .

hwele). In the 12th century 'such . . as' appears. Chaucer has 'such . . which' and 'such . . that': 'I shall loven such that I will'. 'Who', 'which', and 'that' after 'such' were especially common in the period of Queen Anne. 'Such . . as' has ruled since.

The form 'such . . as' is a convenient substitute for

The form 'such . . . as' is a convenient substitute for 'that', and enables us to vary the relative construction in restrictive clauses without loss of clearness. It has the further advantage of enabling us to enclose the antecedent: 'such skill as he

displayed.'

- 'As' may easily be replaced by 'which' in certain co-ordinating cases. 'The ships were frozen in, as not unfrequently happens in these regions': 'as' is here very much the same as 'which' in the reference to a whole clause going before. The adverbial sense of 'as' is more prominent in this application.
- 23. The word But is substantially a relative in certain constructions where the principal clause has a negative force. 'But' is always restrictive.

'There was no one but did his best' is equal to 'there was no one that did not (do) his best'. 'Who is there but commits errors?' 'Who is there that does not commit errors?'

Earlier, it was usual to insert after 'but' the appropriate demonstrative pronoun: as 'there was never yet fair woman but she made mouths in a glass'; 'scarce a skull's cast up but well he knew its owner'.

24. The adverb when answers the purpose of the relative (and governing preposition), with a noun of time as the antecedent; as 'the good news from Ireland reached London at a time when good news was needed'.

It is also usual to employ 'in which' for the same meaning; but in cases where the relative clause limits or defines, 'that' is the proper relative, and we can say 'the very day that he arrived'. 'When' has not always the explicative meaning; thus, 'the day of trial will come, when all will be different'; 'in which' would here be the correct relative. We may say, however, that 'when' is perhaps oftener restrictive than co-ordinating.

25. Where is used as a relative when the antecedent denotes place; as 'I put the book in the place's

where I found it; for 'in which I found it', or 'that I found it in'.

The remarks made on 'when' apply to 'where'. It may be a substitute for either relative, but is perhaps more commonly and better applied when the restrictive meaning is intended, as in the above instance. 'Where' takes a much wider range than literal place, being extended to the many metaphorical applications of place; as, 'the point where your argument fails'.

These two adverbial relatives are of great use in varying and lightening composition, which is always liable to be over-burdened with the common relatives.

- 26. Whence is occasionally used as a relative of place: 'he returned to the place whence he came', instead of 'from which he came', or 'that he came from'.
- 27. Whither is used in like manner in the sense of 'to a place'; as 'I followed him to the house, whither (=to which) he had gone'.
- 28. Why as a relative is always restrictive, and stands for 'on account of which', 'that for'.
- 'There was no reason why he should think so,' is a short and elegant way of saying 'on account of which or for which he should think so', or 'that he should think so (for)'.
- 'Whence', 'whither', and 'why' are of less general application than 'when' and 'where'. They are more confined to their principal use as interrogative adverbs. As relatives they are, strictly speaking, the equivalents of the common relatives with prepositions, 'from which' (whence), 'to which' (whither), 'for which' (why).
- 29. The compound forms 'whoever', 'whoso', 'whosoever', 'whichever', 'whichsoever', 'whatever', 'wherever', 'whenever', 'whenever', 'whenever', 'whenever', 'whenever', 'whenever', have a certain indefinite meaning, and have their antecedents often left unexpressed; thus, 'whoever is found wanting', means any person that is found; 'whoso is wise'; 'whatever be the consequences, I dare not stay'; 'wherever, whithersoever you go'.

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boys, the youngest that has learned to dance is James'. This last sense is restrictive, and 'that' should be used.

2. Turning now to 'which', we may have a series of parallel examples. 'The court, which gives currency to manners, should be exemplary': here the meaning is 'the court should be exemplary, for the court gives currency to manners'. 'Which' is the idiomatic relative in this case. 'The cat, which you despise so much, is a very useful animal.' The relative here also is co-ordinating, and not restrictive. If it were intended to point out one individual cat specially despised by the person addressed, 'that' would convey the sense. 'A theory which does not tend to the improvement of practice is utterly unworthy of regard.' The meaning is restrictive; 'a theory that does not tend'. The following sentence is one of many from Goldsmith that give 'that' instead of 'which':—'age, that lessens the enjoyment of life, increases our desire of living'. Thackeray also was fond of this usage. But it is not very common.

'Their faith tended to make them improvident; but a wise instinct taught them that if there was one thing which ought not to be left to fate, or to the precepts of a deceased prophet, it was the artillery'; a case where 'that' is the proper relative.

'All words, which are signs of complex ideas, furnish matter of mistake.' This gives an erroneous impression, and should

be 'all words that are signs of complex ideas'.

'In all cases of prescription, the universal practice of judges is to direct juries by analogy to the Statute of Limitations, to decide against incorporeal rights which have for many years been relinquished': say instead, 'incorporeal rights that have for many years', and the sense is clear.

3. It is necessary for the proper understanding of 'which' to advert to its peculiar function of referring to a whole clause as the antecedent: 'William ran along the top of the wall, which alarmed his mother very much'. The antecedent is obviously not the noun 'wall', but the fact expressed by the entire clause—'William ran', &c. 'He by no means wants sense, which only serves to aggravate his former folly'; namely, (not 'sense', but) the circumstance 'that he does not want sense'. 'He is neither over-exalted by prosperity, nor too much depressed by misfortune; which you must allow marks a great mind.' 'We have done many things which we ought not to have done', might mean 'we ought not to have done many things'; that is, 'we ought to have done few things'. 'That' would give the exact sense intended: 'we have done many things that we ought not to have done'. 'He began to look after his affairs himself, which was the way to make them prosper.'

. We must next allude to the cases where the relative is

governed by a preposition. We can use a preposition before 'who' and 'which', but when the relative is 'that', the preposition must be thrown to the end of the clause. Owing to an imperfect appreciation of the genius of our language, offence was taken at this usage by some of our leading writers at the beginning of last century, and to this circumstance we must refer the disuse of 'that' as the relative of restriction.\*

\* Speaking of Dryden, Hallam says, 'His Essay on Dramatic Poesy, published in 1668, was reprinted sixteen years afterwards, and it is curious to observe the changes which Dryden made in the expression. Malone has carefully noted all these; they show both the care the author took with his own style, and the change which was gradually working in the English language. The Anglicism of terminating the sentence with a preposition is rejected. Thus, "I cannot think so contemptibly of the age I live in," is exchanged for "the age in which I live". "A deeper expression of belief than all the actor can persuade us to," is altered, "can insinuate into us". And, though the old form continued in use long after the time of Dryden, it has of late years been reckoned inelegant, and proscribed in all cases, perhaps with an unnecessary fastidiousness, to which I have not uniformly deferred, since our language is of Teutonic structure, and the rules of Latin and French grammar are not

always to bind us.'

On the same subject Dr. Campbell remarks:—'Now that I am on the subject of the prepositions, it will not be improper to consider a peculiarity which is often to be found with us in their arrangement. In every other language the preposition is almost constantly prefixed to the noun which it governs; in English it is sometimes placed not only after the noun, but at a considerable distance from it, as in the following example: "The infirmary was, indeed, never so full as on this day, which I was at some loss to account for, till upon my going abroad I observed it was an easterly wind." Here no fewer than seven words intervene between the relative which and the preposition for belonging to it. Besides, the preposition doth not here precede its regimen, but follows it. One would imagine, to consider the matter abstractly, that this could not fail in a language like ours, which admits so few inflections, to create obscurity. Yet this, in fact, is seldom or never the consequence. Indeed the singularity of the idiom hath made some critics condemn it absolutely. there is nothing analogous in any known tongue, ancient or modern, hath appeared to them a sufficient reason. I own it never appeared so to me. -Rhetoric, Book III., Chap. 4.

The following examples, taken from Massinger's Grand Duke of Florence,

will show what was the usage of the Elizabethan writers:-

'For I must use the freedom I was born with.'

'In that dumb rhetoric which you make use of.'

'--- if I had been heir Of all the globes and sceptres mankind bows to.

'— the name of friend Which you are pleased to grace me with'

Which you are pleased to grace me with.'

'— wilfully ignorant in my opinion Of what it did invite him to.'

"I look to her as on a princess I dare not be ambitious of."

'— a duty

That I was born with.'

'It is curious that the only circumstance connected with Scott, and related by Lockhart, of which I was a witness, is incorrectly stated in the Life of Sir Walter'. (Leslie's Memoirs.) The relative should be restrictive: 'that I was a witness of'.

'There are many words which are adjectives which have nothing to do with the qualities of the nouns to which they are put.' (Cobbett.) Better: 'there are many words that are adjectives that have nothing to do with the qualities of the nouns

(that) they are put to'.

Other objects, of which we have not occasion to speak so frequently, we do not designate by a name of their own.' This, if amended, would be: 'other objects that we have not occasion to speak of so frequently, we do not', &c.

'Sorrow for the dead is the only sorrow from which we refuse to be divorced; 'the only sorrow (that) we refuse to be divorced

from'.

'Why, there is not a single sentence in this play that I do not know the meaning of.' (Addison.)
'Originality is a thing we constantly clamour for, and con-

stantly quarrel with.' (Carlyle.)
5. 'Whose' although the possessive of 'who', and practically of 'which', is yet frequently employed for the purpose of restriction:

> 'He spoke of love, such love as spirits feel, In worlds whose course is equable and pure.'

This is not felt to be so great a departure from idiom as the prepositional forms 'of whom', 'of which' are, when used to define or restrict the subject.

'We are the more likely to guard watchfully against those faults whose deformity we have seen fully displayed in others.' This is better than 'the deformity of which we have seen'.

'Propositions of whose truth we have no certain knowledge.'

(Locke.)

6. 'Where', and its compounds—'wherein', 'whereof', &c., are substitutes for both relatives. They may therefore be used instead of 'that', without the misleading effect of 'which'. The following are examples:—'the happiest condition of society is (that) where the greatest number of persons is (should be are) found possessing a moderate yet sufficient subsistence'; 'I

> '--- must supply me With all I am defective in.'

' --- a copious theme Which would, discoursed at large of, make a volume. So in Shakspeare, to take an example out of many:-

'To have no screen between the part he played And him he played it for.'

know of no rule whereby it may be done'; 'they (great virtues) often save, and always illustrate the age and nation in which (wherein) they appear'; for 'the age and nation that they appear in'.

7. 'Such as' is restrictive, and is a convenient mode of varying the relative construction: 'Eat such things as are set before you'. 'Whittield's preaching was such as England had

never heard before.'

'Hard fare! but such as boyish appetite
Disdains not, nor the palate, undepraved
By culinary arts, unsavoury deems.' (Cowper.)

8. 'What', the equivalent of 'the—that', 'that which', has the advantage of taking a preposition: 'ruin seemed impending and inevitable, though no one could tell in what it would first show itself', or 'what it would first show itself in'.

'What in me is dark, Illumine; what is low, raise and support.'

'It is probable that any attempt to establish a different classification of the parts of speech, from that which (what) is

commonly received, will be found of little utility.'

9. We have also seen that a clause in participial adjection may have a restrictive force: 'a truth long forgotten may have to be rediscovered'. 'What man among you, having a hundred sheep,' equal to 'that has'. 'We give the papers showing (for 'that show') the concord existing between the four Powers at the time when England and France were engaging in a separate course of action' (Kinglake). 'But it would be absurd to expect mercy, justice, or wisdom from a class of men first abased by many years of oppression, and then maddened by the joy of sudden deliverance, and armed with irresistible power' (Macaulay).

10. In the following examples we shall avail ourselves, as may seem fit, of all the foregoing devices, with a view to amend-

ing the relative construction.

'There are one or two objections which have been brought against the study of political economy, which it may be useful to notice,' may be amended thus: 'there are one or two objections (that have been) brought against the study of political economy, which (and these) it may be useful to notice'; 'it may be useful to notice one or two objections brought against the study of political economy'.

'There are two objections, however, by which (whereby) its

justness may be possibly controverted.

'A spirit more amiable, but less vigorous, than Luther's would have shrunk back from the dangers which he braved and surmounted;' 'that he braved'; 'the dangers braved and surmounted by him'.

'Nor is it at all improbable that the emigrants had been guilty of those faults from which civilised men who settle among an uncivilised people are rarely free '(Macaulay). 'Nor is it at all improbable that the emigrants had been guilty of the faults that (such faults as) civilised men that settle (settling, or settled)

among an uncivilised people are rarely free from.'

11. The form 'those who' applied in a restrictive sense is the modern substitute for the ancient idiom 'they that', an idiom in accordance with the true meaning of 'that'. told me the story, said'; 'blessed are they that mourn'; 'and Simon and they that were with him'; 'I love them that love me, and they that seek me early shall find me'; 'they that are whole have no need of a physician'; 'how sweet is the rest of them that labour!' 'I cannot tell who to compare them to so fitly as to them that pick pockets in the presence of the judge'; 'they that enter into the state of marriage cast a die of the greatest contingency' (J. Taylor).

'That man hath perfect blessedness

Who walketh not astray,'

if expressed according to the old idiom would be, 'the man hath—that walketh'.

'That', 'those', as demonstrative adjectives refer backward, and are not therefore well suited for the forward reference implied in making use of 'that which', 'those who' as restrictive relatives. It is also very cumbrous to say 'that case to which

you allude', for 'the case (that) you allude to'.

12. Take now the following:—'the Duke of Wellington is not one of those who interferes with matters over which he has no control': 'the Duke is not one of them that interfere in matters that they have no control over (matters that they cannot control, beyond their control, out of their province)'. If 'them that' sounds too antiquated, we may adopt as a convenient compromise, 'the Duke is not one of those that'; or 'the Duke is not one to interfere in matters out of his province'; 'the Duke is not one that interferes with what he has no control over'.

13. 'Prejudices are notions or opinions which the mind entertains without knowing the grounds and reasons of them, and which are assented to without examination' (Berkeley). 'which' in both cases should be 'that', but the relative may be entirely dispensed with by participial conversion: 'prejudices are notions or opinions entertained by the mind without knowing the grounds and reasons of them, and assented to without examination'.

'The political and moral system of Mahomet is that which (what, such as) might be expected from one who aimed (aiming) only at personal aggrandisement, and who had (having) no generous views beyond.'

He who thinks that sovereign power is too great, and would desire to limit it, can do so only by setting up a greater'; 'he

that, thinking sovereign power too great, desires'.

14. The too frequent repetition of 'who' and 'which' may be avoided by resolving them into the conjunction and personal or other pronoun: 'In such circumstances, the utmost that Bosquet could be expected to do was to hold his ground, (which) and this he did'.

31. One of the uses of Pronouns is to save the repetition of a Noun; as 'John is come; he has not been long'.

This may be effected by various other means.

(1.) By some more general designation; as in Milton: 'Thus spoke the tempter, the fiend', for Satan. 'We went to see St.

Paul's, and admired the vast building.'

Such general words are often advantageously combined with the relative: 'touching musical harmony, a thing that (equal to 'which') delighteth all ages; a thing as seasonable in joy as in grief; 'he was naturally morose, a peculiarity that I do not here take into account'. Also the relative may be dispensed with: 'the nation were unanimous, a thing (a circumstance) of rare occurrence'.

(2.) By the use of synonymes. 'His happiness was much enhanced by his success; but it was not in the nature of so

great bliss to last.'

Under the adjective we shall see other modes of saving the repetition of the principal subject, as by 'former and latter," 'the one and the other,' 'the first and the second,' &c.

It is a very insufficient definition of the pronoun to say that it saves the repetition of the noun, being wholly inapplicable to interrogatives, and to the indefinite pronouns. The relative pronouns, moreover, have in addition the force of conjunctions; and, as we have just seen, the use of the pronoun is not the sole means of avoiding the repetition of the noun.

## . THE ADJECTIVE.

#### Definition.

I. An Adjective is a word joined to a noun to limit its application; as 'my hat;' 'a sweet sound'.

Adjectives are commonly said to name a quality. But this can hardly apply to pronominal adjectives, as 'this,' 'our'. Moreover in the classification of adjectives, one class is those of quality; implying that the other classes, namely, adjectives of quantity and the pronominal adjectives, are not expressive of quality. It is better to treat them as words that go along with nouns to specify or narrow their application. For example, the word 'wise' joined to the noun 'man,' signifies a more select kind of man, having the distinguishing attribute termed wisdom. Thus while the extent of the noun is narrowed, its meaning is increased by the adjective: 'wise men' are a smaller class than 'men', but they have one attribute in addition to what is common to men.

2. An Adjective is distinguished from a noun by its inflexion, which is for degree, or what is called Comparison: 'wise, wiser, wisest'; 'fertile, more fertile, most fertile'.

In our language, which admits the easy convertibility of the parts of speech, nouns are often used to discharge the office of the adjective; as 'the gold ring'. These nouns are distinguished from true adjectives by not being compared: we cannot say 'gold, golder, goldest'. On the other hand, the true grammatical adjective does not undergo the noun inflexion: we do not say 'wise, (plural) wises.' By the same criterion we can distinguish an adjective from a verb used to limit a noun; as 'a brew house'.

It follows from the definition, that an adjective cannot be the subject of a sentence. We cannot say 'wise is good'. A word that merely limits can have no meaning standing alone, or without a word to limit. Such cases as 'foul is fair', 'black is not white', are not exceptions; the adjective being used for the corresponding abstract noun. Hence when a sentence or clause begins with an adjective we understand that there is an inversion of the usual order; as 'great was the fall thereof'.

An adjective cannot qualify any part of speech but a noun. It cannot be governed by a preposition.

## Classes of Adjectives.

3. I. Pronominal Adjectives. These are of four kinds—Demonstrative, Interrogative, Relative, and Possessive.

The name 'pronominal' indicates that these adjectives (this,

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The, a modification of 'that', is commonly called the Definite Article. It is usually explained along with 'a' or 'an', called the Indefinite Article.

You and yonder are chiefly applied to things at some distance: 'yonder ivy-mantled tower'.

The form 'yond' is now dropt: 'yond star that's westward from the pole '(Hamlet).

Compare the German jener ('that').

Such is partly demonstrative, having a reference also to quality and quantity. 'Such toil in such an atmosphere was too much for them.'

'Such' is the modern form of the old 'swilc', = swi-lic, 'so-like', 'like that'.

Compare the German solch.

5. The adverbial substitutes for the Demonstrative Adjectives are the same as for the Demonstrative Pronouns: 'so', 'thus', 'then', 'there', (and the compounds, 'herein', therein', &c.), 'hence', 'thence', 'hither', 'thither'. These substitutes cannot be used where nominatives are required. 'Here, there, lies,' are equivalent to 'in this place', 'in that place'.

Both variety and elegance are attained by the employment of these adverbs as demonstratives. The remarks made respecting 'where', 'when', &c., as equivalents of the relative pronouns, are applicable to the present class of words: 'here is the point'; 'there's the rub'; 'herein is love'; 'then was the time'.

6. 2. Pronominal Interrogative Adjectives: 'what', 'which', 'whether', and compounds.

What applies to both persons and things: 'what man?' 'what woman?' 'what country?' 'I see what friends and read what books I please.'

'What' was originally a neuter pronoun. By the 13th century it had come to be used adjectively with nouns of all genders.

Which is used similarly: 'which man, or men?'
'which woman, or women?' 'which country or countries?'

In its earlier use, 'which', like 'such,' implied also quality and quantity.

Whether is now disused: 'whether case is the better?'

7. 3. Pronominal Relative Adjectives: 'which', 'what', and compounds.

Which applies to all genders and both numbers: 'Here we were met by the lieutenant, which officer was to show us over the ship'; 'the army refused to march, which circumstance disconcerted all his plans'.

Various substitutions are generally preferred: 'we were met by the lieutenant, who was, &c.', or, 'an officer that was'; 'the army refused to march, which—a circumstance that—and this—disconcerted all his plans'.

What is used in much the same way: 'what friends he gained he kept'; 'what time the floods lift up their voice'; 'you may take whatever books you choose'.

8. 4. Pronominal Possessive Adjectives: 'my', 'mine', 'our', 'ours', 'thy', 'thine', 'your', 'yours', 'his', 'her', 'hers', 'its', 'their', 'theirs'. These are the possessives of the Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns.

The double forms 'my, mine', 'our, ours', 'thy, thine', 'your, yours', 'her, hers', 'their, theirs', have distinct uses. The first form is used with nouns like any other adjectives, as 'my book'; 'your house'; 'their liberty'; the other form is employed in predication, and in other cases where the noun does not immediately follow; as 'the book is mine'; 'the house is not yours'; 'that is your opinion, mine is very different'. In the translation of the Bible, 'thine' and 'mine' are used with nouns beginning with a vowel or with 'h': 'mine eyes have seen thy salvation'; 'mine honour', &c. A similar difference exists between 'none' and 'no'; as 'Thy kingdom hath none end at all'; 'friend hast thou none'; 'he gave no reason; in truth, none can be given'.

The meanings of the possessive pronouns are so well understood and so little subject to irregularity, as to need no special

comment.

## 9. II. Adjectives of Quantity.

Setting aside the pronominal adjectives, we may include all the others under the two heads of quantity and quality: those of the one class (quantity) are few in number and peculiar in character; the other class (quality) comprises the great body of adjectives. The adjectives of quantity are subdivided as follows:—

10. 1. Adjectives of Quantity in mass or bulk: 'much', 'little', 'great', 'small', 'some', 'any': 'much wind'; 'little light'; 'great rivers'; 'some feeling'. These are all indefinite.

This kind of quantity is also called continuous quantity, and is opposed to broken, numbered, or discrete quantity. Space, motion, bulk, and material being in many instances unbroken, we do not always apply numbers to designate their amount. When we desire accuracy we suppose these things divided into parts, and number the parts; as 'ten yards'. But where we cannot do this, as in mental qualities, we use adjectives of degree, and apply qualifying words to specify the differences; thus, 'small, very small, exceedingly small, diminutive, insignificant'; 'great, large, somewhat large, rather large, considerable, vast, huge, immense, enormous, infinite'; 'middling, 'average, moderate, ordinary, sober', &c.

'Some' and 'any' are applied also to number.

- II. 2. Adjectives of Quantity in Number. Under this we have various kinds.
- (1.) Definite Numeral Adjectives; as 'eight days' (cardinal number); 'the eighth day' (ordinal number).

The cardinal numbers—one, two, three—denote totals made up to the amount of the number- two, five, fifty, &c. The ordinal numbers indicate a series, and state the place of an individual in the series: the 'fifth' marks one object at a certain remove from the commencement.

We may include also the multipliers, 'single', 'double', 'twofold', 'triple', 'threefold', 'quadruple', &c.; and the combination of the numerals with particular subjects, as 'biennial', 'quadrilateral', 'heptagonal'. These have also the meaning of quality.

An, or a, the Indefinite Article, is the numeral adjective one, with a somewhat altered signification.

None, No, expresses the absence, negation, or privation of anything.

'None' is the old English 'nan', made up of ne+an ('not one'), and 'no' is a shortened form, like 'a' from 'an'.

The words must be followed by the singular or plural, according to the meaning. An ancient Greek disbelieving his religion would have said there are 'no Gods'; a Jew, there is 'no God'. In the union with plural nouns, the deritation of 'none, no' is forgotten. So the common expression no one' is, in this regard, tautological, being literally 'not one one'.

Another is 'an-other', 'a second', 'one more', in addition to whatever number has gone before.

In old English, 'other' was used as an ordinal where we now use 'second'

A derived meaning of 'another' implies the sense of difference: 'that is another (= a different) question'.

Both means two taken together, and is opposed to the distributives 'either' (one of two), and 'neither', (none of two).

This word, being often used without the noun, assumes the character of a pronoun.

12. (2.) Indefinite Numeral Adjectives; as, 'many days', 'any books', 'all men'. These express number, but not in the definite form of numeration.

Many, although plural in meaning, can be joined. with a singular noun preceded by 'a': 'many a man'. This usage dates from the beginning of the 13th century.

Any—old English 'ænig', from 'an' ('one') means 'one', but no one in particular: 'any knife will do'. It was early applied to plural nouns also: 'any trees', 'any men', it matters not which, nor how many.

After negative words 'any' renders the exclusive sense emphatic: 'without any remainder', 'not any doubt'. The application to mass or bulk has been already mentioned (§ 10): 'any meat', 'any wool'.

The old negative 'nænig' (ne-ænig) disappeared in the thir-

teenth century. 'None' and 'not any' take its place.

An, a, while indicating definitely one individual and no more means no one in particular. Hence it is called the *Indefinite* article.

Some indicates one individual not particularisel, or denotes an uncertain portion of an entire class or number: 'Some enemy has done this'; 'give him some apples'.

'Some' has various meanings. In strict logic it signifies 'not none', a certain number, but how many not stated—some at least. There is a more popular meaning, which implies less than the whole, 'some only', or 'some at most'. 'Some men are wise' insinuates that there are other men not wise. Hence the alternative signification: 'some believed', and 'some (others) believed not'. 'Some fifty years ago' is a very old idiom for expressing an approximate number.

The application to mass or bulk has been already mentioned

(§ 10): 'some wood', 'some mischief'.

Certain is a small select number. Applied in the singular it means a particular and known individual.

Several, the Distributive Adjective, is also used to mean a small number without reference to distribution: 'he entered with several followers'; 'several of the palace towers were toppled to the earth'.

Sundry and divers, also originally meaning 'separate', are now less frequently used to signify a small and indefinite number: 'for sundry weighty reasons'; 'divers townspeople'. Compare also different and various: 'for various (or different) reasons'.

Few is opposed to 'many'. 'Few, few shall part where many meet.' 'A few' is some—not many.

Not a few is a more emphatic 'many'; the denying of an opposite being often a stronger form of the affirmative. 'Not inconsiderable' is perhaps a little less than 'considerable'.

Most, the largest number.

All is opposed alike to 'none' and to 'some'.

Whole, 'or total', is opposed to 'part', and hence to 'some'.

13. (3.) Distributive Numeral Adjectives; as 'each man', 'neither way'. These are 'each', 'either', 'neither', 'several', 'every', 'other'.

Each is employed to denote two or more things taken separately: 'Simeon and Levi took each man his sword'. 'Each' is a singular word.

When applied to two, 'each' is opposed to 'either', any one of the two, as well as to 'both', or the two collectively: 'I resolved to compare the accounts of my two friends, allowing for the prejudice of each, and to form my judgment upon both, without adhering strictly to either'. The correlative of 'each' is 'other', as seen in the elliptical expression 'bear each other's burdens'.

Either means any one of two things. 'Give me a pen or a pencil; either will serve my purpose'; that is, a pen will serve, or, in the absence of a pen, a pencil, will serve.

'Either' is often used where the proper adjective would be 'each', but not so often now as formerly. 'The King of Israel, and Jehoshaphat, King of Judah, sat either (for each) of them on his throne.' 'There was a huge fireplace at either (more properly each) end of the hall.'

Neither excludes each of two things; it means—not the one and not the other: 'Truth may lie on both sides, on either side, or on neither side'.

Several refers to an indefinite number, and is usually joined to a plural noun: 'they went to their several homes'.

Every means each individual of a whole collection separately stated or considered: 'give every man his due'.

'Every' is a compound of 'ever-each'; it appeared about the beginning of the 13th century. Excepting in such idiomatic phrases as 'each other', it might be almost generally substituted for 'each'. 'Every' is an emphatic word for 'all', as it seems to address the individuals separately: 'England expects every man to do his duty'; 'not every one that saith unto me'. 'Every three years' is an admitted idiom.

Other, opposed to 'one', is the second or alternative of a couple—a dual form: 'Both the hills, the one held by the royal troops, and the other by their enemies, were alive with armed men'.

'No other' has the more indefinite signification of 'none besides or anywhere'. Followed by 'than' it is the same as 'none but'. By an incidental consequence, 'the other' may point out contrariety; as 'on the one side of the river stood our army, on the other, the enemy'. The meaning of iddition comes naturally to attach to the word: 'get as much other knowledge as you can '. 'The other day' is an idiom for 'lately'.

14. III. Adjectives of Quality; as 'a broad way', 'a heavy weight', 'a prudent man'.

These embrace the great body of adjectives, and are co-extensive with human knowledge. They could be classified only by referring to the sciences, or different departments of knowledge; as mathematics, natural history, morals, &c. Everything that can be pointed out as a property, power, or agency, is liable to be expressed as an adjective, so as to qualify some object. Roget's Thesaurus of Words and Phrases, a classification of human knowledge is given as a basis for the classification of words according to their meaning, and it will be found that the words thus arranged are nouns, adjectives, and verbs; and there is hardly any meaning that cannot appear in all the three forms.

The nouns least suited to become adjectives are the names of natural classes or kinds, as 'tree', 'horse', 'monkey'; because these objects contain too many qualities to be predicated of anything besides themselves. We cannot well have a thing different. from a tree and possessing all the characters of a tree; hence when we derive an adjective from tree, as 'arborescent', we mean only the form of a tree, and not all the attributes. 'manly', 'leonine', or 'lionlike' merely indicate some prominent character of a man, or of a lion, and do not transfer the whole of the attributes of a man or a lion to something that is neither. Adjectives formed from the names of metals, minerals, woods,

&c., generally signify 'made from' these materials.

Adjectives derived from the names of great natural objects, often mean only a reference to those objects; as the 'the solar, the lunar tables '-tables respecting the sun or moon.

15. The class of Adjectives derived from proper names, and called Proper Adjectives, are principally adjectives of quality; as the 'Socratic

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48. The is called the Definite Article, because it points out one object definitely: 'the horse' means some one horse in particular.

'The' is a weaker form than the demonstrative 'that'.

'That' in the first instance supposes something actually seen by being pointed out: as when we say, pointing to a candle, 'bring me that candle'. When we cannot point to a thing, we may mark it out by some description: 'that candle which had just been lit'. Such descriptions when fully given have the form of the adjective clause, with a relative of restriction: 'that man whom (that) you see'. As a lighter form, we employ 'the' instead of 'that':—'the candle which (that) has just been lit'; 'the man whom (that) you see'. A single individual, person or thing, is pointed out by some circumstance that applies to him

or it, and not to any other.

These adjective clauses of description are often shortened, by leaving out whatever is not essential to the meaning. Thus 'the man that stands in the doorway', may be 'the man standing in the doorway', or still shorter, 'the man in the doorway', the verb 'standing' being understood. In such cases what is left is an adverb phrase, and this is one of the most frequent accompaniments of the definite article:—'The way (that leads) to the castle'; 'the tree before the house'; 'the church on the hill'; 'the water of the river'. The single-word adverb may also be used:—'the evening star' is the contraction for 'the star that shines in the evening'; it might have been the 'star in the evening'; or 'the star of evening'; but usage prefers 'the evening star'. Any one of the forms is distinctive of a particular star, and that is enough.

When the important fact is given in the verb itself, the verb must be retained, whatever else is left out:— Bring the candle that has been lighted, if made shorter, must be the lighted candle. The circumstance that distinguishes this candle from the rest is its being lighted, and, therefore, the verb must be kept to show what individual is pointed at by the '. The

standing stones'; 'the coming race'.

An Adjective, especially in the superlative degree, may serve the same end as the participle:—'the broad walk' is supposed to be so well contrasted with all other walks by its breadth, that to give this adjective is to point to one walk exclusively. So, 'the great pyramid', 'the black hole'. 'The heaviest metal' is the one metal platinum.

A Noun may be the defining word: 'the salt lake is a contrac-

such, the article is properly used to point out an individual. So, 'the granite formation', 'the Atlantic cable', 'the Pitt

ministry'.

The article may be used without any specifying accompaniments, as 'the fire', 'the hill', 'the street', 'the general', 'the lion', 'the mind', 'the Bar', 'the rich'. The shortening is here carried to the very utmost; the defining circumstances are left out altogether. This is because the person addressed knows what is meant. We say 'the fire', instead of 'the fire that is in this room', because we are speaking to a person in the room, and using language that precludes all other fires. When we say 'stir the fire', we can mean only the fire that is in the room: if we did not mean that, we should have to use defining words—'go and stir the bedroom fire'. So, 'the hill' means some onc hill near and familiar; 'the street' is the street that is close by, or where we are living at the time, or that has been already mentioned or defined.

'The lion' is a shorter way of saying, 'the species of animals named the lion'. So with 'the rose', 'the potato', 'the palm', among plants. 'The French' is the people or nation having that name.

'The rich', 'the powerful', 'the great', 'the miserable', are phrases that leave out the class name—men or human beings—as being readily understood, and merely give the name of the selection intended, which selection, as being one and definite, receives the article.

'The true', 'the just', 'the good', 'the lawful', 'the expedient', are other forms of the abstract nouns—truth, justice, goodness, lawfulness, expediency. They may be considered as shortened, for 'the things that are true', 'the things or actions of men, that are just', &c. Only the essential word is retained;

the rest can be supposed.

'The' with a comparative, as in 'the more, the better', does not show the ordinary use of the definite article; but is a survival of its ancient ablative form in the stronger demonstrative sense of 'that'. 'Thy (the) ma, thy (the) bet' is literally 'by that 'or by so much) more, by that (or by so much) better'; like the Latin 'quo magis, eo melius'. 'They will ask the more', does not properly exemplify a transitive verb with an object.

Scotticisms in the use of the Articles.—There are various Scotticisms in connexion with the articles:—'How much the pound is it?' (what is it a pound?); 'sixpence the piece' (a piece); 'the sugar is cheaper' (sugar); 'go to (the) school'; 'say (the) grace'; 'a justice of (the) peace'; 'up (the) stairs'; 'he is studying (the) Botany'.

The names of diseases are recognised as proper nouns: 'he

has caught cold', 'he died of consumption, of typhus'. It is an impropriety to treat them as class nouns, and prefix the

article—the cold, the fever.

'From Tweed to Tay' is a poetical usage; for 'from the Tweed to the Tay'. 'Not worth (a) sixpence.' 'The day' (to-

Who breaks a butterfly upon a wheel ', is given by Lowth as

an error of the article. The meaning is definite: 'the wheel'.

To drop the article from words that it has usually been joined to has a personifying effect. When we say 'society' instead of 'the society', we treat society as a person. So with 'Government' for 'the Government'. The Americans say 'Community thinks so too'.

## Substitutes for the Adjective.

19. The Adjective Clause is the longest and fullest equivalent to the Adjective; it is a sentence serving to limit a noun in the same manner as the Adjective: 'the way that he ought to go' is 'the right way'; 'accidents that result in death' are 'fatal accidents'; 'an attempt that has no chance of succeeding' is 'an impossible attempt'.

The Adjective Clause is more fully exemplified afterwards (see Analysis of Sentences). We have now seen that it is by contracting Adjective Clauses that we obtain the short expressions with the Definite Article. In the same way we explain the extensive employment of Nouns as Adjectives, and the less frequent use of Adverbs and Prepositions.

- 20. The Participial Phrase gives the same meaning in a condensed form: 'accidents resulting in death', troops hired to fight' (mercenary), 'the knowledge possessed by him '(his), 'tribes given to the worship of idols' (idolatrous).
- 21. The Prepositional Phrase is a still shorter form, by an obvious ellipsis: 'the war between Russia and Turkey' (Russo-Turkish) 'disturbances in the colonies' (colonial), 'the book before me' (this).
- 22. Nouns employed as Adjectives: 'a gold crown'; 'the cotton districts'; the police regulations';

'the Berlin decrees'; 'Health of Towns Act'; 'cod-liver oil'.

These are all contracted forms: 'a gold crown' is 'a crown that is made of gold', 'a crown made of gold', 'a crown of gold'; by retaining the only essential word and putting it in the regular position of the Adjective, we say 'a gold crown'. So, 'the districts where cotton is grown'; 'the regulations that are laid down by the police'; the decrees that were issued from Berlin'; 'the Act that was passed for improving the Health of Towns'; 'oil that is prepared from the liver of the cod'.

From what has been already said as to the employment of the Definite Article, it will be seen that words are often left out that are essential to the full expression of the meaning, because the hearer can supply them from a knowledge of the circum-

stances.

The same noun used as an adjective has not always the same meaning; in 'gold fields', the meaning of 'gold' is different; being the 'fields where gold is gathered or dug'. The word 'house' has a different application in each of the following instances—housemaid, house-top, house property, house tax, house surveyor, house fittings, house drainage, house robbery. In expressing the meaning at full in each case, a different verb would be necessary. This, however, we are often able to guess, from the meanings of the words themselves. We see that 'house tax' is likely to mean a tax imposed upon the owners of houses. In other cases, the circumstances or the context will show what is the connection intended.

23. The Possessive forms of Nouns and Pronouns may serve the purpose of the Adjective: 'God's commands' are 'the divine commands'; 'a mother's care' is 'motherly or maternal care'; 'whose image is this!'

Again the equivalence to the clause may be shown: 'the commands that God has issued', 'such care as a mother bestows', 'an image that represents whom is this!'

24. Adverbs and Prepositions may also occasionally be employed for Adjectives.

This is possible by leaving out part of the complete expression. 'The king that then reigned' is made 'the then king'. 'The down train' is a shortened form of 'the train that goes down'. 'After ages', 'ages that are to come after (the present)'; 'the above discourse', 'the discourse that has been given above (the point where we now are)'.

# Co-ordinating or Predicate Adjectives.

- 25. The Predicate of a sentence is often made up of an Incomplete Verb and an Adjective: 'the rose is red', 'the wind became violent', 'the king turned pale', 'it is growing colder', 'she was pronounced blameless'.
- 26. Adjectives in the Predicate are not restrictive, but co-ordinating. They do not narrow the class mentioned, but express some new meaning that adds to what we know of it.

In the designation 'fixed stars', the adjective 'fixed' narrows the class 'stars', and increases its signification, so that the subject denotes not all 'stars', but such stars as are fixed: this is the usual purpose of an adjective joined to a noun. In the saying—'the fixed stars are remote'—the adjective 'remote' does not farther narrow the class 'fixed stars', but predicates, or says, of them that they are 'remote'; that they belong to the class 'remote or distant things'. If we fill in a supposed ellipsis, writing 'the fixed stars are remote things, stars, &c.', then 'remote' is restrictive, limiting 'things', 'stars', &c., but not limiting 'the fixed stars'.

27. Many Adjectives prefixed to Nouns are not restrictive, but co-ordinating, or predicate Adjectives.

This can be known only from the sense.

When an adjective is prefixed to a proper or singular name, it cannot be restrictive. 'Brave soldiers' expresses a select class of soldiers, possessing, in addition to the qualities of all other soldiers, the quality of being brave. But 'brave Curtius' cannot restrict Curtius: an individual cannot be restricted. The meaning is—'Curtius, who was brave'; it is a short way of mentioning Curtius, and of saying also that Curtius was a brave man.

'Glorious Apollo' is 'Apollo, who is glorious'. It names Apollo, and adds that he is glorious.

## THE VERB.

### Definition.

I. The Verb is the part of speech concerned in predication; that is, in affirming or denying—in presenting something to be believed or disbelieved, something that can be acted on. There can be no sentence without a Verb. 'Milton wrote Paradise Lost'; 'the sun shines'; 'the sea is calm'.

In affirmation, as has been seen, there must always be two things, a subject and a predicate. The subject is expressed by a noun or its equivalent; the predicate always contains a verb. Whenever any word has the effect of predicating or affirming, it is from that circumstance a verb. But verbs have the further grammatical distinction of being inflected to express varieties of time, person, number, manner of action, &c. A verb proper is thus distinguished from a word belonging to some other part of speech that may be used in predication. The adverb 'away' may be employed for the verb 'go', but it is not on that account a true grammatical verb; we do not say 'I away, thou awayest, they awayed'.

## Classes of Verbs.

2. I. Transitive Verbs:—The fire warms the room.

Here 'warm' is called transitive, because the action passes over to and affects a certain object, 'the room'. This is contrasted with another class of verbs exemplified by 'the fire glows', where the action, 'glowing', is said not to pass away from, but to adhere to, the fire. It is with a transitive verb that we have a sentence containing subject, action, and object, in other words, the completion of the predicate by an object.

Transitive verbs are construed in the passive voice:—'Watt invented the steam-engine', 'the steam-engine was invented by

Watt'.

Reflexive Verbs are transitive verbs with the same individual as both subject and object: 'I laid me down', 'they contradicted themselves', 'the king's policy developed itself'.

Reciprocal Verbs are transitive verbs used in the expression of mutual action and reaction of subject and object: 'they help each other'.

There is nothing peculiar in the verbs themselves; they are ordinary transitive verbs; but from the circumstances of their use they seldom take the passive form. 'They were contradicted by themselves' is not a usual form, being quite unnecessary; but we may say 'they were contradicted by their own evidence,' or such-like. 'They help each other' is simply elliptical for 'they help; each helps (the) other(s)'; at 21 the passive construction is equally rare in this case.

3. II. Intransitive Verbs:—Come, lie, sit, stand, sleep, walk, run, speak, bark, wonder, groan, breathe, live. die.

These give a complete meaning without an object:—'He comes', 'they run', 'I wonder', 'we shall all die'. 'After life's fitful fever, he sleeps well.'

One of the innumerable ways of shortening speech is to leave out the object of a verb, and express the action generally, or without referring to any object in particular. Thus the verb 'see' is a transitive verb; it needs an object, or something to be seen: 'the child sees the candle'. Yet we have this expression:—'The new-born child sees, the puppy is blind'. The verb now expresses the power of seeing things in general, and not any one thing in particular. So, 'men build houses' (tran.); 'men build, and time pulls down' (intrans.). 'Blest be the art that can immortalise.' 'Keep (for keep yourself, reflexive) out of the way '. •

Intransitive Verbs converted into Transitives.—Intransitive verbs are very often modified by adverbial expressions in the form of preposition and noun; as 'I wonder at his zeal'; 'they came to the resolution'; 'his friends stood by him'. By an allowable process, the prepositions in such cases become adverbs united to the verbs, constituting them compound verbs, and rendering them transitive likewise: what was the object of the preposition being now the object of the verb. Thus we have the verbs 'wonder at,' 'come to,' 'stand by,' 'speak to,' 'ride about' (the town, the fields), which are often transitive in the fullest sense, as tested by the passive construction: 'his zeal was wondered at'; 'the resolution was come to'; 'the servant was spoken to'.

The verbs termed 'Causative' are a class of Transitive verbs, formed from Intransitive. 'He sets' is 'he causes to sit'. So

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#### THE ADVERB.

### Definition.

I. The Adverb limits or modifies the meaning of the Verb:—'she sings brilliantly'; 'they ran well'.

The verb usually expresses some action, or active exertion, and, as an action may be performed in many ways, words are needed to show this; the action named by the verb 'sing' may be performed with every variety of excellence, and under many circumstances; and instead of employing additional sentences to specify these modes, a single word or phrase is taken for the purpose. 'She sang here yesterday for an hour with great applause.' Four circumstances are given as accompanying or modifying the action—one of place, given by the single-word adverb 'here'; one of time by a single word 'yesterday', and another of time by a phrase 'for an hour'; one of quality or manner by a phrase 'with great applause'.

When we say the adverb qualifies the verb, we mean the action expressed by the verb, which action may involve other words in addition. 'He boldly fought-his-way-to-the-barrier': 'boldly' qualifies the entire predicate—'fought his way to the barrier'.

The adverb is commonly said to qualify, not verbs alone, but also adjectives and other adverbs. This is not true generally, but applies to one of the smallest classes of adverbs, those expressing DEGREE. The attributes expressed by adjectives are usually variable in degree; and the variations are expressed by adverbs 'good, very good'; so with adverbs—'wisely, very wisely'. But the most numerous class of adverbs, the class containing ninetynine out of a hundred of the whole—adverbs of manner or quality, could not from their nature qualify Adjectives and Adverbs. 'A being darkly wise' is partly a poetic figure, and partly exemplifies the practice of using adverbs of quality to express degree, through some accident in their meaning that suggests quantity. Thus 'scarcely', 'exceedingly', 'confoundedly', are in the first instance adverbs of quality or manner, but they are adopted to serve for degree.

When an adverb seems to qualify a preposition, it really qualifies an adverbial phrase: 'greatly above his reach', 'much before the time'.

An adverb may qualify a noun, but the nouns so qualified are transmuted verbs, or verbal nouns: 'I shall study only instruction', for 'only that I may instruct'; 'he was fully master of the subject', 'he fully mastered'. 'An only son' is 'an only beyotten son'. By such abbreviations adverbs are at last taken for adjectives. 'The house here' is 'the house that is here'. Napoleon, (who was) lately Emperor of the French.' This is less irregular than 'the late Emperor'; the fact of time is more properly stated by an adverb: 'my former teacher' is a transformation of 'he that formerly taught me'.

## Classes of Adverbs.

2. Before classifying adverbs according to their signification (as place, time, &c.), it is proper to advert to an important distinction running through all these classes. Most adverbs contain their meaning within themselves, and are therefore called simple; they might also be called absolute, or notional; such are 'now', 'here', 'greatly', 'delightfully'. A small number have no meaning in themselves, but refer to some adjoining clause for the meaning; as, 'when,' 'while,' 'where'. 'whether', 'whence', 'why', 'wherever', 'as', 'than', &c. These are to the other adverbs what the pronoun is to the noun, and hence they are called relative adverbs; they are also connective or conjunctive adverbs, being in fact commonly reckoned among conjunctions. 'He came while' is not intelligible; the sense is suspended till some other clause is supplied: 'He came while I was speaking'; 'I know not whence you are'.

Most of this class are obvious derivatives of the relative 'who'

Most of this class are obvious derivatives of the relative 'who' (or its root); and we have seen that they are substitutes for the

relative pronouns.

Taking simple and relative adverbs together, we may classify .

them thus:

3. I. Adverbs of Place; as 'here', 'there', 'without', 'above', 'near', 'apart', 'together', &c.

This includes the following regularly formed pronominal group:—

Place where.	Motion to.	Motion from.
Here	Hither	Hence
There	Thither	Thence
$\mathbf{W}\mathbf{here}$	$\mathbf{W}$ hither	$\mathbf{W}$ hence

Also the compounds, 'hitherward', 'thitherward', 'whitherward'.

4. 1. Rest in a place: 'here', 'there', 'where', 'by', 'near', 'yonder', 'above', 'below'.

Here, in this place, this place; opposed to 'there', in that, or some other place; an adverbial substitute for the demonstrative 'this'. It has metaphorical extensions to other subjects: 'here lies the difference'.

There, in its primitive meaning, is explained by its contrast to 'here'. The two are coupled together in various idioms; as 'neither here nor there' (no matter), 'here a plain, there a river'. 'There' has a very peculiar use. We employ it to begin

'There' has a very peculiar use. We employ it to begin sentences without any special reference to the idea of place, and hence derive one of our idiomatic forms of syntax. 'There was once a good king'; 'there was not a tree to be seen'; 'there came a voice from heaven'. Out of the definite signification 'in that place' has sprung an expression of mere existence. It is not difficult to account for the transition. To be able to say that a thing is in a certain place is to give an emphatic assurance that it exists; and hence the localising statement has become the statement of existence. Instead of saying 'a road is', or 'exists', we say 'there is a road'. This idiom is found very convenient, but is apt to be abused, and the excessive use of it should be avoided. Thus, instead of such circumlocutions as 'there is a sense in which that is true', 'there is a plan by which you might do it', we might with more elegance, because more briefly, say 'in one sense that is true', 'one plan would be'.

The following sentence is an example of the effect of the form in question: 'One act James induced them to pass which would have been most honourable to him and them, if there were not abundant proofs that it was meant to be a dead letter'.

(Macaulay.)

Where is one of our interrogative words. In form it is an adverb, like 'here' and 'there'; in use it is also a purely connective word, serving the function of a relative or of a conjunction. 'She left the place where she was so happy.' Having the original meaning of place, it has acquired the same metaphorical extensions as those two other words. 'Where ignorance is bliss, 'tis folly to be wise.' By an ellipsis easy to explain we find it employed as if it were a substantive: 'He had no where to lay his head', for 'he had no place where he might lay his head'. We have the compound phrase 'somewhere', like 'somehow', 'nohow', &c.

Near, by, are the adverbs of nearness or proximity: 'there was no one by'; 'he stood by'; 'by comes a horseman'. 'By' shows its difference from 'here' (in this spot), in the

phrase 'put by', which means put away or remove.

Under this head we class the adverbs of numerical order: 'firstly' or 'first', 'secondly', 'lastly'.

5. 2. Motion to a place: 'hither', 'thither', 'whither'.

Hither, thither, are likewise an opposed and mutually explaining couple: 'to this place', 'to that place'; 'come hither', 'go thither'; 'where I am, thither ye cannot come'.

Whither is 'to what place?' as an interrogative'; 'to which place', as a relative.

6. 3. Motion from a place: 'hence', 'thence', whence'.

Hence, thence, whence; 'from this place', 'from that place', 'from what or which place'. 'Hence' is extended to time, 'a week hence'; also to reason or cause, as 'hence (from this cause) it is '; likewise from this source or origin: 'all other faces borrowed hence their light, their grace'. The extension to time hardly takes place with 'thence' and 'whence', but these share in the extensions to reason or cause: 'the facts are admitted, whence we conclude that the principle is true'. 'From whence' seems a tautology, or superfluity of expression, but we find it in good use: 'Who art thou, courteous stranger, and from whence?'

Separation in place is expressed by 'apart', 'separately', 'asunder'.

Conjunction is expressed by 'together.'

Place, in a variety of relative positions, is indicated by 'above', 'aloft', 'below', 'under', 'down', 'beyond', 'yonder', 'away', 'through', 'in', 'out', 'without', 'inwards', 'inside', 'around', 'fro', 'forth'.

The compounds with the single adverbs of place are exceedingly numerous, and many of them pass into other classes, and even into other parts of speech by metaphorical application: hereby, herein, hereupon, thereabouts, thereafter, therefore, thereof, thereon, whereas, whereby, wherefore, whereof, anywhere, elsewhere, somewhere, wheresoever, &c.

- 7. II. Adverbs of Time; as 'ever', 'lately', 'often', 'before', &c. Time may be present, past, or future.
- 8. 1. Time present. Under this we include the following: 'now', 'to-day', 'instantly', 'presently',

'still', 'forthwith', 'henceforth'; together with such phrases as 'this instant', &c.

Closely allied to this class are those adverbs that connect one thing with another in point of time, such as 'while', 'when', 'then', 'as', 'immediately'.

The word now is the main or typical adverb of present time,

from which signification its other uses are derived.

'Immediately' is used by the Scotch, when the English use 'presently'. 'I will come presently' is the current English expression for 'I will lose no time', 'I will come without delay'. The strict use of 'immediately' is to make one event follow close on another in a narrative; 'he heard the news, and immediately set out'.

- 9. 2. Time past: 'before', 'heretofore', 'hitherto', 'already', 'lately', 'once', 'yesterday'. The meaning of once is 'some former time not signified'.
- 10. 3. Time future: 'hereafter', 'afterwards', 'soon', 'henceforth', 'presently', 'immediately', 'tomorrow', 'no more'.

It will be seen that some of these (soon, presently, immediately, henceforth) have been already enumerated under present time. They express an action just about to commence, and therefore, though strictly future, they are yet also practically present.

II. 4. Duration and Repetition: 'ever', 'never', 'always', 'aye'; 'often', 'seldom', 'rarely', 'occasionally', 'frequently', 'continually', 'continuously', 'incessantly', 'perpetually', 'again', 'once', 'twice', 'daily', 'monthly', 'annually', 'periodically'.

Ever is the foremost of the class expressive of duration. Its meaning is 'at all times', or 'through all time'; and owing to the great force or impressiveness obtained through this extensive signification, we find it employed as a word of emphasis: 'if he offer ever so much', meaning an indefinitely large quantity. By analogy we extend the figure still farther, and say 'ever so little', although this somewhat borders on a contradiction of the original meaning; as also does 'ever the less' for 'one whit the less. The same reason explains the applications of 'never'. As it excludes all time, it is a term of strong denial, and is employed for mere purposes of emphasis. 'He answered him

Again means originally 'back', 'opposite', 'on the contrary', 'on the other hand', and hence 'a second time', but is not confined to this application. It serves as a conjunctive adverb, or conjunction, introducing a new sentence or paragraph, with the signification 'once more', or 'in addition'. By the phrase 'once and again', frequent repetition is denoted.

12. III. Degree, or Measure; as 'much', . 'little', 'very', 'far', 'exceedingly'.

These refer to the attribute of quantity, which has been seen above to be estimated in two ways, namely, by numbers, and by indefinite words.

For a scale of intensity beginning at the least, we have 'very little', 'little', 'slightly', 'scarcely', 'inconsiderably', 'pretty', 'moderately', 'enough', 'sufficiently', 'much', 'very much', 'greatly', 'exceedingly', 'utterly', 'thoroughly', 'generally', 'universally', 'terribly'. 'Gay', in the sense of 'very', is a Scotticism.

'Generally' has two very different meanings which are liable to occasion ambiguity. In the one sense it implies 'for the most part', or 'in the majority of instances', as 'the plan generally succeeded', or succeeded in the greater number of trials. In the other sense it means a general or generalised fact or attribute, something common to a whole class, as 'Animals generally have a nervous system', or, it is a general property of animals. The first is the most usual meaning the general in better animals. The first is the most usual meaning, the second is better expressed by the phrase 'in general'.

Defect. The following may be considered as expressing quantity under the form of defect or deficiency: 'almost', 'nearly', 'little', 'less', 'least', 'hardly', 'but', 'partly', 'well-nigh'. 'Partly' is an adverb of division: 'partly his, partly yours'.

Excess is implied by 'very', 'far', 'exceedingly', 'more', 'most', 'better', 'best', 'worst'.

Equality, or sufficiency: 'enough', 'sufficiently', 'equally', 'exactly', 'perfectly', 'truly', 'just'.

Abatement, or gradation: 'hardly', 'piecemeal', 'gradually'.

Repetition (implies number): 'seldom', 'often', 'frequently',
'once', 'twice', 'thrice', 'again', 'once more'. In the sense of addition: 'also', 'likewise', 'besides', 'too'.

- 13. There are certain important adverbs of Comparison: 'so', 'as', 'than', 'the', and 'too'. With these may be joined 'enough', 'sufficiently', and 'only'.
- So, in its original etymology, is a demonstrative pronoun, meaning 'by that'. We have seen that it is still employed in this character. It thence became an adverb of comparison:

'it was so dark, that we could see nothing'. It was dark 'by that, to that measure, namely, that we could not see'. To make the comparison, some second clause or statement is requisite. Sometimes it is used with a marked emphasis:

'So frowned the mighty combatants, that hell Grew darker at their frown.'

In colloquial language, we often leave the comparison unsupplied, and then the word is a mere expression of intensity: 'the view is so fine'.

The application to signify cause and effect is in conformity with the original meaning: 'he ran with all his might, and so was first'; which is to say, that 'running in that manner, he became first'; the relation of cause and effect being inferred from the sequence of statement.

As, etymologically, is a contraction of 'all-so'. In substance it is the same word as 'so', and admits of the same interpretation. It also retains a pronominal application in the relative combination 'such as', and perhaps in the constructions 'as follows', 'as regards'. The adverbial signification 'as brave as a lion' may be explained 'brave by that (or in that degree) by which (or in which degree) a lion is brave'. By an admitted ellipsis, we may say 'brave as a lion'. 'As far as we can see'; 'as two is to one, so is twelve to six'; two is to one by that, twelve is to six by that. 'Men are more happy, as they are less involved in affairs'; 'more' (the more) completes the comparison.

'As' passes into more remote meanings when used as a conjunction. Thus it means time—'he trembled as he spoke'; reason—'as (for since) you are of that opinion'. In combination with 'if', the comparative signification is still apparent; 'as if we did not know that'. There is simply an ellipsis.

Than (formerly 'then') follows comparatives. 'He is stronger than you' is, in full, 'he is stronger; then (= next, in a lower degree) strong are you'.

The (O.E. thy, abl. of demonstr. adj.) precedes comparatives. 'The more, the better'='by that more, by that better', 'better in that degree in which more'. Compare 'as'.

Too is likewise an adverb of comparison occasionally employed in the absolute sense. Its terseness is fully appreciated in translating into other languages, as the Latin. 'He is too old to learn' is a happy abbreviation of 'he is so old that he is unable to learn'. When the phrase expressing the comparison is suppressed, we must understand the word in the sense of 'more than enough, than what is just, right, convenient, fitting, or desirable'.

'Oh! that this too, too solid flesh would melt, Thaw, and resolve itself into a dew.'

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'not a whit', 'not a bit', 'not a jot', 'forsooth' (an ironical phrase in modern English, but used at one time seriously, for 'verily').

For probability, contingency, or uncertainty, we have 'perhaps,' 'probably', 'possibly', 'maybe', 'haply', 'mayhap', 'likely,'

'perchance', 'peradventure', howbeit'.

15. V. Cause and Effect; as 'therefore', 'wherefore', 'why', 'whence', 'hence', 'thus', and numerous phrases.

Under this head we may include instrumentality, which meaning, however, although abundantly expressed by phrases and clauses, is seldom given by any single word.

16. VI. Manner, or Quality; as 'well', 'ill', 'wisely', 'bravely', 'softly', 'quickly', 'remarkably', 'rightly'.

As with adjectives, this is the class that includes the great body of adverbs. Of the five previous classes it is possible to give an exhaustive enumeration, but adverbs of quality make a large part of the vocabulary of the language. The mode or manner of doing an action may be very various, as we may see on a little reflection. Suppose the subject is putting something in motion; we may move quickly, steadily, violently, suddenly, abruptly, hurriedly, straight, zigzag, strongly, rightly, beautifully, unexpectedly, and so on. And every kind of action that it is possible to mention has varieties of manner peculiar to itself. Thus 'to speak', 'to sing', 'to eat', 'to look', 'to work', 'to govern', 'to die', have all their special modes, exclusive of the attributes of time, place, and degree, above enumerated; and the word, or phrase, or clause, expressive of that mode, is considered in grammar as an adverb. 'He spoke long, clearly, to the purpose.' 'He looked hard, with anxiety, as if he were in earnest.' 'He governed wisely, with discretion, so as to gain esteem.' 'He died easily, without suffering, as one would have predicted.' A word, or combination of words, answering to the interrogative 'how' is an adverb of manner, as replying to an inquiry into the special mode or circumstances of an action. If we say 'the sun shines', any one may demand a more specific account of this fact, which is known to take place in a variety of ways, and the words employed to give such more specific information are adverbs or the equivalents of adverbs: 'the sun shines brightly, or with intermission, or so as to light up the landscape, or as if we were

in the tropics'. The name for the specifying attribute of a noun corresponds to the adjective in grammar; the specifying attributes of the verb are given by the adverb. Now, from the great variety of ways and circumstances of the performance of actions, adverbs, and adverbial phrases and clauses, like adjectives and their equivalents, are necessarily innumerable.

- 17. Adverbs of Manner are often used to express Degree: 'seriously', 'hopelessly', 'piercingly', 'provokingly', 'inseparably', 'inextricably'.
- 'The patient is seriously, hopelessly ill'; 'the air is piercingly cold'; 'he was provokingly cool', 'they are inseparably, inextricably connected'.
- 18. The formation of adverbs from Participles is an elegant means of brevity: 'provokingly', 'knowingly', 'avowedly', 'invitingly'.
- 'He was provokingly cool' is a short way of giving the sense of 'he was so cool as to provoke one—that one could not but feel provoked'. 'They broke the law knowingly' is a condensation for 'they broke the law, and they knew that they were doing so'. 'He has avowedly retracted his opinion'; 'the door is invitingly ajar'.

## Substitutes for the Simple Adverb.

- 19. The equivalents of the Adverb in composition are phrases and clauses.
- (1.) Place. Phrases: 'I was never in that place, quarter, town, part of the world, &c. (= there)'; 'at the seat of judgment', 'in the skies', 'under the greenwood tree'. Clauses: 'wherever one gocs (= cverywhere), one hears the same story'; 'where the tree falls, there will it lie'; 'whither I go, ye cannot come'; 'go whence you came'. The relative adverbs—'where', 'whither', 'whence', 'wheresoever,' &c.—are the connectives of these clauses with the main clause, while they also qualify, by the attribute of place, the verb in the dependent clause.
- (2.) Time. Phrases: 'Their rivalry is active even to this day (= yet)', 'every two years' (= biennially); 'once on a time'; 'the day before yesterday', 'next year', 'a century ago'. Clauses: 'while I live (= ever, always, &c.) I will follow truth'; 'I will come when I can'; 'the thing was done before I came'. These clauses are introduced either by the relative adverbs of time—'ere', 'until', 'when', 'while', 'whenever'—or by the

prepositions 'before', 'after', 'since', which in this application govern clauses, instead of nouns, but are usually called conjunctions.

- (3.) Degree. Phrases: 'The scene was in a singular degree (= singularly) romantic'; 'he is so clever as to surprise one (surprisingly clever)'; 'by ever so little', 'to a small extent', in a very intense degree'. Clauses: 'He is not so careful as he ought to be (= careful enough)'; 'the rain was heavier than we anticipated—than could have been anticipated (= unexpectedly heavy)'; 'the sea is as deep as the mountains are high'; 'as thy day is, so shall thy strength be'. 'As' is the principal word employed in these clauses. The degree being expressed by comparison with some other thing as a standard, the connective required is a word or words of comparison or proportionality: as—as, as—so, than, the (the more). 'He knows more than I (do)'; 'the longer we live, the more charitable we become'.
- (4.) Belief and Disbelief. Phrases: 'Beyond doubt (= undoubtedly, doubtless)', 'with the highest certainty', 'with great hesitation'; to confess the truth (= truly, indeed, certainly, &c.), I do not like him.' Clauses: If my life depended on it, 'I would maintain my opinion'; 'I am as certain as if I had seen it (= perfectly certain)'. Clauses of Belief and Disbelief are introduced by forms for Degree.

CONDITION, UNCERTAINTY. 'The King could not legislate without the consent of his Parliament (phrase)—unless (or except) his Parliament consented, if his Parliament did not consent' (clause). Conditional conjs. introduce these clauses.

(5.) CAUSE and EFFECT.

CAUSE. Phrases: 'For what purpose (= why) are you doing this?' 'owing to these causes (—hence, therefore, &c.) the enterprise failed'; 'by the action of the sun,' 'by force of kindness,' by the influence of the government'. Clauses: 'The crops are bad, because the spring was ungenial'; 'we lost the fight, because our numbers were reduced'. The conjunction 'because', and its equivalents (inasmuch as, by reason that, &c.) are the connecting links in this kind of clause.

EFFECT. Phrases: 'To his own hurt,' 'with the highest success (= most successfully)'. Clauses: 'He stood his ground, so that at last he triumphed'.

(6.) Manner generally. The phrases and combinations for this purpose are innumerable. 'In a manful way', &c. The clauses are introduced by the relative or connecting adverb 'as', upon the same principle of comparison as that involved in degree. 'He behaved as if his all had been at stake'; 'he falls to such perusal of my face as he would draw it'.

20. Other Parts of Speech are occasionally used as Adverbs.

Nouns: 'He sent the man home' (place); 'he goes to-morrow' (on the morrow) (time); 'he cares not a groat' (degree). 'Skin deep', 'town made', 'stone dead'.

This is not an unfrequent usage. We can explain it by the abbreviation of the adverbial phrases, 'on the morrow', 'to his house, or home', 'so much as a groat, &c.

Pronouns occasionally serve as Adverbs: 'what (=why) should he labour?' 'somewhat large' (Scotch 'some large'); 'none the worse'; 'I will not do this either'.

Adjectives often appear to stand where Adverbs might be expected; as 'drink deep', 'the green trees whispered soft and low', 'this looks strange', 'standing erect'.

We have also examples of one adjective qualifying another adjective, as 'wide open', 'red hot', 'the pale blue sky'. Sometimes the corresponding adverb is used, but with a different meaning; as 'I found the way casy—easily'; 'it appears clear—clearly'. Although there is a propriety in the employment of the adjective in certain instances, yet such forms as 'indifferent well', 'extreme bad', are grammatical errors. 'He was interrogated relative to that circumstance', should be relatively, or in relation to. It is not unusual to say 'I would have done it independent of that circumstance', but independently is the proper construction.

The employment of Adjectives for Adverbs is accounted for by the following considerations:

(1.) In the classical languages the neuter adjective may be used as an adverb, and the analogy would appear to have been

extended to English.

(2.) In the oldest English, the adverb was regularly formed from the adjective by adding 'e', as 'soft, softe', and the dropping of the 'e' left the adverb in the adjective form; thus 'clæne', adverb, became 'clean', and appears in the phrase 'clean gone'; 'fæste, fast', 'to stick fast'. By a false analogy, many adjectives that never formed adverbs in -e were freely used as adverbs in the age of Elizabeth: 'Thou didst it excellent', 'equal (for equally) good', 'excellent well'. This gives precedent for such errors as those mentioned above.

(3.) There are cases where the subject is qualified rather than the verb, as with verbs of incomplete predication, 'being 'seeming', 'arriving', &c. In 'the matter seems clear', 'clear' is part of the predicate of 'matter'. 'They arrived safe'; 'safe' does not qualify 'arrived', but goes with it to complete the predicate. So: 'he sat silent', 'he stood firm'. 'It comes beautiful', and 'it comes beautifully', have different This explanation applies especially to the use of participles as adverbs, as in Southey's lines on Lodore; the participial epithets applied there, although appearing to modify 'came', are really additional predications about 'the water', in elegantly shortened form. 'The church stood gleaming through the trees'; 'gleaming' is a shortened predicate of 'church'; and the full form would be: 'the church stood and gleamed'. The participle retains its force as such, while acting the part of a coordinating adjective, complement to 'stood': 'stood gleaming' is little more than 'gleamed'. The feeling of adverbial force in 'gleaming' arises from the subordinate participial form joined with a verb, 'stood', that seems capable of predicating by itself. 'Passing strange' is elliptical; 'passing (surpassing) what is strange'.

Verbs; as 'smack went the whip'; 'he let it go bang at the window'; a very rare usage.

Prepositions; as 'I told you before'; 'I have not met him since'; 'we never trusted them after'.

#### THE PREPOSITION.

### Definition.

I. A Preposition is a word prefixed to a Noun or its equivalent to make up a qualifying or adverb phrase:—'Send the parcel to town, in the evening, by us.'

The action of sending the parcel is limited by three adverb phrases; and the word used in each that goes with the noun or pronoun to make the phrase, is a distinct part of speech, called the Preposition: 'to', 'in', 'by', are prepositions.

This is the only definition that effectually separates preposi-

tions from conjunctions. A conjunction could not be used with a noun to make a qualifying phrase. We could not say-'Send

the parcel if town, though the evening, or us'.

The regular place of a preposition is between a verb and a noun:—'taken by force'. Where one noun is connected with another by a preposition, there is usually a contraction:—'We went from house to house', 'we went from (one) house, and we went to (another) house'. 'Your Father in heaven'; 'your Father who dwells in heaven'.

Sometimes a preposition is joined with an adverb (see Noun, § 21): 'until now (= the present time)', 'for ever (= all time)', 'from abroad', 'not above once or twice', 'by to-morrow'.

In such expressions as 'in all', 'in brief', 'for good', 'at last', 'for better', 'for worse', prepositions are combined with adjectives, instead of nouns. The ellipsis of the noun is obvious.

### Case-Prepositions.

- 2. Certain Prepositions specially correspond to the case-endings of nouns in the classical languages; these are—'of', 'to', 'for', 'from', 'by', 'with'.
- 3. Of corresponds to the possessive case in English, and the genitive case in other languages.

As the possessive inflection is used only in a small number of nouns, and not uniformly in those, we are dependent on this preposition for conveying the meaning of the possessive case.

- 'Of' expresses a variety of relations, which may be traced up to a common source. The original import of the root was 'from', 'separation', 'proceeding from', which easily led to the meaning now most generally signified, namely, 'belonging to' or 'referring to'. For example, the 'force of the wind' means a property proceeding from the wind, or manifested by it, and therefore inhering in it, or belonging to it.
- (1.) The partitive meaning. 'Of' is used to relate the part of anything to the whole: 'the wing of the eagle', 'the walls of the town', 'the banks of the river'.

Any complicated object may be considered as made up of its parts. A house has a foundation, walls, a roof, doors, windows, rooms, &c.; these are its parts, or mechanical divisions. Any

one of these being specified, we signify that it belongs to the house by the preposition 'of': 'the roof of the house'.

So we may say 'the army of Britain', 'the children of the

So we may say 'the army of Britain', 'the children of the family', 'the property of the corporation'. These are all separable parts of the wholes that they severally belong to.

A fraction or division of a total is expressed by 'of' on the same principle: 'a third of the proceeds'; 'few of the host survived'; 'a tithe of all he possessed'; 'one ninth of the remainder'. Hence the adjectives of fullness or want are naturally followed by 'of'; 'full of compassion, of hope'; 'destitute of clothes, of money, of all things'.

(2.) The attributive meaning. 'Of' is used to connect an abstract property, or quality, with the concrete; as 'the strength of the lion', 'the lightness of air', 'the temper of steel'.

There is a second mode of conceiving a complex or concrete object, namely, as made up of properties, or attributes, inseparable from the object, except in thought. Thus we may speak of the length of a room, but we cannot cut off the length from the other dimensions and properties. We cannot separate the weight, the colour, the value, of gold from the rest of the qualities. These are called abstract qualities; they are spoken of in language as inhering in the total, or the concrete; and when any one of them is specified, the preposition 'of' is the connecting word: as 'the sweetness of honey', 'the shape of the mountain', 'the colour of the snow'.

These two meanings are simple and intelligible, being two modes of the same general idea of 'possession', 'property', or 'belonging'. But we find other meanings apparently very

remote from this leading idea.

(3.) The reference meaning. 'Of' may serve to specify a subject or make a reference; as 'the Book of Proverbs'. Here 'Proverbs' indicates the subject that the 'book' refers to. 'The love of our neighbour'; love with regard to, or directed upon, a certain party specified as our neighbour. 'Of man's first disobedience—sing, heavenly Muse'.

This meaning may have grown up thus. If we say 'a book of problems', we may be understood as implying, that of the whole class of things named problems, as much is taken as will make a book,—literally, 'a bookful of problems'. 'A treatise of geometry', is a portion of the whole subject of geometry,

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ample of apposition, 'the town, Berlin'. It is not allowable to apply this form indiscriminately: 'the river of Jordan' is an error.

'This affair of the mutiny' is the same as 'this affair, namely, the mutiny'. We may perhaps consider the present case as a further application of the meaning of reference. 'A brute of a dog' is colloquial English, and may be interpreted as a case of apposition, or predication, 'a dog that is a brute'.

'The winter of our discontent' is a Shakespearian figure, indi-

cating apposition.

Additional examples. 'To ask a favour of', 'to rid one's self of', 'to cure a man of', 'delivered of a child' ('woes', 'danger' -Shak.), are examples of the employment of the preposition in its primary sense of 'proceeding from'. 'He rejoiceth more of that sheep than of the ninety and nine which went not astray; 'I will not drink of the fruit of the vine'; 'to die of hunger'.

In the expression 'of necessity' we have the equivalent of the adverb 'necessarily'. It may be explained as 'something belonging to or proceeding from necessity'. Shakespeare says 'of force', where we should say 'perforce'. So, 'of course', 'of consequence', 'of a truth'.

Agency or cause was often expressed by 'of' about the time of Elizabeth: 'received of (for 'by') Edward', 'the observed of all observers', 'understanded of the people', 'ye shall be hated of all men', 'seen of all the apostles'.

This application remains in the exceedingly common case where the action, naturally expressed by a verb, is expressed by a noun. 'The baptism of John' gives in the form of a noun (with adjunct) the fact that 'John baptized', and the agent or subject is connected with the action by 'of'. In the same way, 'the war party agitated' is turned, for being conveniently spoken about, into 'the agitation of the war party'; and 'of'

is used as in the preceding example.

Again, the object, as well as the subject, of an action is similarly connected with the transmuted verb by 'of'. We may say 'Cæsar conquered Gaul', and then speak of this fact as 'Cæsar's conquest of Gaul'; the verb being transmuted into a verbal noun, with which the object is kept connected by 'of'. 'Columbus discovered America' the discovery of America'; 'Gutenberg invented printing'—'the invention of printing';
'England lost Calais'—'the loss of Calais'; 'to destroy a city'

- 'the destruction of a city'.
In 'the Earl of Mar' we have an exact case of partition; for although such titles are now mere names, they were not always Mar was a great district of country containing many constituent elements, physical and moral; among these was its

chief, or Earl: so that 'the Earl of Mar' was a correct form on the partitive principle, no less than 'the district, the people, the wealth, the history, &c., of Mar'. 'The Queen of England', the 'Town Clerk of Leeds', are exactly parallel. The same principle will explain 'Doctor of medicine', 'Teacher of music', 'Dean of Guild', 'Master of the Rolls'. Every one of these supposes a collective institution, made up of many elements, or parts, and of these one is specified: Medicine is a whole, containing its science, its methods, and among the rest, its doctors.

In comparing the expressions 'a bust of Cicero' and 'a bust of Cicero's', we can farther illustrate the uses of the preposition. In the second case it has the partitive signification; the meaning is 'a bust of Cicero's collection of busts'; in the other it is an example of reference—'a bust whose subject is Cicero'.

'A play of Shakespeare' is also partitive; a man's productions

are considered as a part of his collective personality.

'The better of it is not so good as 'the better for it'. 'My uncle Toby's heart was a pound lighter for it.'

4. To. The primary idea of motion in the direction of pervades all the applications of 'to'.

Considering the extent of its use, the meaning of 'to' is remarkably uniform. It is pointedly contrasted with 'from', as in the phrase 'to and fro'. 'He went to the house', 'leave that to me', 'add to your faith', 'duty to our parents', 'to arms', 'glory to God', are obvious instances. Among the more remote applications are to be found such phrases as 'pleasant to the taste', 'to one's hand', 'ten to one', 'to the number of two hundred', 'to all intents and purposes', 'to his honour be it said', 'done to a cinder', 'ye shall pay to the last penny', 'they marched to the tune of ', 'to a Christian, this world is a place of trial and preparation'. Even in the examples where motion 'in the direction of' is not directly stated, proximity, which is the natural result, is indicated; hence the meaning of reference indicated in the last example.

As the sign of the infinitive, 'to' has still the same signifi-

cation.

It is remarked by grammarians that certain nouns, adjectives, and verbs take 'to' after them, and lists of such words are accordingly given for the guidance of the pupil; as, for example, 'accustom to', 'adapt to', 'belong to', 'equal', 'prefer', 'tend', &c. But it should be noticed that in nearly all these cases the intended meaning is answered by this preposition, and would not be so well answered by any other. Thus the words 'attach', 'attend', 'confirm', 'consecrate', 'listen', 'give,'

'tell', 'show', 'liken', all indicate the sense of approaching nearer to something, or pointing in some one direction, which is the main signification of 'to'. In a few cases there would appear to be something arbitrary in the choice, and in these wide departures from the fundamental meaning we must look upon the connexion as a special idiom of the language, to be learned from usage, and not to be inferred from the general meaning of the word. Among these, we may perhaps include the following, 'blind to' (where 'to' means reference), 'derogatory to', 'foreign to', 'object to', 'opposite to'.

Such examples as 'true to', 'unknown to', 'dislike to',

Such examples as 'true to', 'unknown to', 'dislike to', 'provoke to', 'impute to', 'adapt to', are conformable to the

primary signification.

We occasionally meet with violations of these special usages,

such as 'different to', for 'different from'.

'To take to wife' is almost a solitary remnant of this use of 'to'; = 'as', 'for', 'in the capacity of'. 'With God to friend' (Spenser); 'he hath a pretty young man to his son' (Bunyan). 'This is nothing to what we expected'. The sense of 'in comparison with' is easily reached from the original meaning. 'The Greeks are strong and skilful to (in proportion to) their strength'.

'It is altered to the better', should be 'for the better'.

Scotticisms: 'Will you buy a knife to (for) me'; 'I have no fault to (with) him'; 'I entertain no prejudice to (towards) him'.

5. For is much more complicated and various in its applications. Originally connected with 'fore', meaning 'in front of', it has branched off in different directions, until the original signification is frequently to all appearance lost sight of.

(1.) The chief meaning is 'direction, end, purpose, benefit'. 'They set out for their home'; 'some toil for money, others for fame'; 'every one for himself'; 'the Sabbath was made for man'; 'for this end came I into the world'; 'good for man'; 'oh, for a draught of vintage that hath been—'; 'for Jesus' sake'.

This meaning is brought out strongly by the contrasting preposition 'against': 'he fought for his principles and against his interest'; 'for the constitution, and against the king'. 'We are for the principles of good government against Walpole, and for Walpole against the opposition.'

The meaning of reference, seen in such expressions as 'so much for the first question', 'bodies depend for their visibility',

can be traced to the meaning of end, purpose, benefit.

'The old idiom now called the gerund form of the verb, is an instance of this application: 'What went ye out for to see?' The idea of end or purpose is implied in this verbal construction, although the 'for' is now dropped.

'For a holy person to be humble, for one whom all men esteem as a saint, to fear lest himself become a devil, is as hard as for a prince to submit himself to be guided by tutors.' Here we have a form grown out of the gerund construction, with a reference still to the idea of end, purpose, or direction. This is a useful equivalent of the noun clause (that a holy person be humble, that a prince submit himself, &c.).

The meaning of cause, as well as of purpose, readily connects itself with the sense 'in front of': 'beheaded for treason', 'decorated for bravery', 'could not act for fear', 'eminent, famous for', 'frequented for'.

In the phrases 'six for a penny', 'line for line', 'measure for measure', we have the meaning of exchange, or 'return for', which chimes in with the original signification. Perhaps the idea of proportionality in the phrase 'he is tall for his years', is merely a following out of the same application. So also 'we took him for his brother', where the meaning shades into the idea of comparison implied in 'as'.

- 'For an hour', 'for a little', 'for once', 'for ever', represent an apparently distinct signification, although we may suppose a connexion between it and the primary meaning 'in front of'.
- (2.) 'For' means 'notwithstanding', 'in spite of', a meaning not readily connected with the foregoing. 'For all this, they still proceed'; 'for all his wealth, he was not content'; 'for anything to the contrary'; 'for all that.' We may suppose the connexion to arise from the circumstance that men often fail in their enterprises, although possessing the usual means of success, and that the word implies the presence of the means, according to its original force, 'in front of', and yet allows us to infer that the end was not gained. 'For all his wealthwith all his wealth in front of him—the natural consequences did not follow in his case'. (Compare the uses of 'with'.)

Of the list of words given as properly followed by 'for', the greater number have their meaning suited by this preposition, while with a few it has no special appropriateness. Thus 'care for', 'sail for', 'work for', 'design for', 'good for', 'prepared for', 'substitute for', 'thankful for', 'answer for', 'occasion for', 'esteem for', are all in accord with the principal meaning above given.

'He was accused for', is a Scotticism for 'accused 'there is much need for it'- need of it' is the correct phrase; 'burst for (with) laughing'; 'insists for (on) it'; 'he called for (on) me'; 'died for (of) thirst'.

'To' and 'for' correspond to what is called the dative case of the classical languages, although they have a far wider range of meaning than could be expressed by that inflexion. Our so-called objective forms—me, thee, him, her, them—are, in their origin, datives, and this signification still to a certain extent adheres to them.

6. From; 'forth', 'forwards', 'beginning at', 'proceeding away.' 'From door to door', 'from Dan to Beersheba', 'from home', 'from earth to heaven'.

The original reference to place is widely departed from in the use of the preposition, but the more general idea of 'direction from' is in the main preserved.

The application to time is seen in 'from morn to noon, from noon to dewy eve', 'from my youth up', 'from age to age'.

Anything that indicates a source, origin, or commencement, may be preceded by 'from'. 'He rose from the ranks, from obscurity', &c.; 'authority emanates from the sovereign'; 'won from the enemy'; 'snatched from the flames'; 'the song began from Jove'; 'we must probe the story from first to last'. Hence it is used in the sense of 'turn away', 'quit', 'leave', 'abandon'. 'He fled from the city of destruction'; 'shrinking from the picture of distress'.

Also remoteness and privation; as 'absent from my sight'; 'remote from cities'; 'far from the madding crowd's ignoble strife'; 'from thee to die were torture more than death'.

It likewise follows words implying deliverance, release, &c.:

'released from his vow'.

So, separation, abstraction, destruction, are indicated by the same preposition, and with a like adherence to the main and primary import.

Motive or reason may be expressed by 'from'; 'they acted from no unworthy motive', 'from gratitude', 'from fear'.

Imitation is a sense closely connected with the original: 'Kneller is said to have painted the figure and hands of ladies from his housemaid. . . He copied from the life only glaring and obvious peculiarities'. (Macaulay).

Errors.—'It is inferior from (should be to) what I expected'; 'different to that', should be from.

7. By. The primary meaning seems to be 'about', 'alongside of', 'proximity'. 'He sat by the river', 'by the tree', 'hard by the oracles of God', 'inhabited

by the great. The other meanings grow out of this by natural transitions.

Thus, defence of, help: 'stand by me'.

Agency, instrumentality, cause: 'eaten by wolves', 'maintained by the public', 'watched by angels', 'shaken by the wind'. Shakespeare uses 'with' in this sense: 'here is himself, marred, as you see, with traitors'; we should now say 'by traitors'. 'We hope to gain by you'; 'seize him by force'; 'by intelligence man raises his condition'; 'the power of speaking well should be aimed at by all'; 'to know by heart'.

Words of measuring take 'by' after them from the circumstance that the things measured have to be put side by side: 'greater by half'; 'measure your desires by your fortunes, not your fortunes by your desires'; 'by the rule and the square'; 'it was sold by the ounce'.

In phrases of distribution, such as 'one by one', 'house by house', 'to do things by halves', we have still the same idea. 'They came by hundreds' is a somewhat loose application; 'in hundreds' is perhaps less frequent in good English.

The employment of the preposition with nouns of *time* illustrates the general signification: 'by this time they are far away', that is 'alongside of, or at this time'; 'by the commencement of spring'; 'by sunrise'.

This is the preposition of adjuration, a purpose still conformable to the primary meaning: 'by all that we hold dear' is 'standing by, and under the love or fear or influence of'.

8. With. The radical notion involved in 'with' appears to be 'towards', 'joining or uniting'. In old English we find 'with—ward', like 'to—ward' ('to us ward', &c.).

The meaning of opposition or contest comes readily from the main root, seeing that combatants must come into close contact. 'With', in old English, was much used in this sense; in compounds it has always this meaning: 'withstand'. The meaning of 'in spite of' may be explained in the same way as the adversative use of 'for'. 'With all his learning, he had but little prudence'.

Company or companionship is a very natural application: 'he travelled with me for some days'; 'there is no living with such neighbours'; 'he came with the first and remained with the last'; 'his servant was with him'; 'he kindled with rage'. 'I will buy with you, sell with you, talk with you, walk

with you, and so following; but I will not eat with you, drink with you, nor pray with you': 'with Ate by his side'. Possession is readily implied in union: 'with the hope of' is the same as 'having the hope of'; so 'with a view to', 'with power to', 'with regard to'.

From union or companionship comes cause, instrumentality, means: 'fed with the same food, hurt with the same weapons'; 'paved with gold', 'enriched with knowledge', 'elated with joy', 'filled with wine', 'planted with firs', 'wearied with much study', 'with meditating that he must die once'.

(Shakespeare.)

It has been seen that the agent, or prime mover, in an effect, more usually takes 'by 'after it; but the *instrument* that the agent employs is expressed by 'with'; 'the field was dug by the labourer with his spade'. 'By 'is the preposition that follows the passive voice to express personal agency: 'tried by his peers'.

'With' is also used for immediately after, the connexion of ideas being apparent: 'with this, he pointed to his face'.

Errors.—'They quarrelled among each other', should be 'with each other'; 'agreeably with (to) their instructions'; 'he is not yet reconciled with (to) me'; 'prevailed with (upon)'; 'good-bye with (to) you', or 'good-bye'.

'From', 'by', and 'with', are prepositions corresponding to the ablative case in Latin. In Greek, which has no ablative, the genitive and dative are taken instead, or the corresponding prepositions are used.

The employing of these detached words is more conducive to variety and precision than the case inflexions. Nevertheless it is proper to signalize the relations that the old languages have thought fit to express by cases, as being in all probability those of most frequent occurrence and of greatest importance. We shall now enumerate the entire body of prepositions under different heads, according to their meanings.

### Classes of Prepositions.

9. I. Place. Under place, we have (1.) Rest in (the where), as 'in', 'on', 'at', 'near', 'by'. (2.) Motion with direction (the whence and the whither), 'to', 'into', 'unto', 'towards' (up, down), 'from'. (3.) Place and direction, 'on', 'over', 'under', 'through', 'behind', 'between', 'among', 'upon', 'near', 'off', 'across', 'beyond', 'abaft', 'above'.

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'at peace', 'at war', 'at play', 'at the price of', 'at a loss', 'at fault', 'at hand', 'at issue', 'at variance', 'at liberty', 'at an end', 'at best', 'at all', 'at large', 'at full speed'.

Scot. 'Angry at (with) him'; 'hatred at (to or against)'; 'ask, inquire at (of) a person'.

Near (nigh) also means proximity: 'near me', 'near the door', 'near the city'.

This idea is obvious in its metaphorical applications; thus we have 'near the heart', 'a translation near the original', 'near the time'. It contrasts with 'at' in not signifying direction at a distance, and with 'in' in not expressing the fact of being contained in.

By. See § 7.

#### II. 2. Motion with direction.

To (§ 4) is the chief preposition for this meaning. The important compound into is very uniform and explicit in its application.

'Go into the house', 'look into a book', 'led into error', 'instilled into his mind', 'forced into compliance', 'ages crowded into years', 'broken up into companies', 'burst into fragments', 'into difficulties', 'infuse more spirit into the composition', 'let into the secret', 'spring into blossom'.

Scot. 'He is soon put into (in) a passion'; 'sit into (near) the fire'.

Unto. Now seldom used, for it signifies almost the same as either 'to' or 'into'.

Toward, towards, in the direction of: 'advance towards the castle', 'look towards the east'.

The metaphorical applications are all obvious: 'contribute towards the expense', 'towards the end of the speech', 'towards evening,' &c.

From has been already explained (§ 6).

#### 12. 3. Place and direction.

On. The simple preposition of rest, repose, or support, the foundation or prop being indicated by the noun following: 'on the ground', 'on the table', 'on the sea', 'on the coast', 'leaning on his staff'.

'London is situated on the Thames', shows a slight departure from the strict meaning, as if by a figure of speech.

Sometimes a falling or other motion is implied: 'The rain falls on the earth'; 'I sift the snow on the mountains below';

'we rushed on deck'.

The other uses consist more or less in following out these primary significations. 'Depend on me' is metaphorical rest or support. 'Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight, is highly figurative but still in keeping. 'He plays on the violin', 'he dined on fish', are farther extensions of signification. The constructions 'to gaze on', 'to dote on', 'comment on', 'prevail on'. 'insist on', 'resolve on', 'reflect on', 'trespass on', are well recognised idioms.

In signifying time, we have such forms as 'on Monday', 'on that night', 'on the occasion'; these explain themselves. A somewhat different sense is observable when we say 'on the melting of the ice the ships depart'. Here the relation is between two actions; first the ice melts, then the ships depart. The one follows the other closely. 'On' is much the same as '(immediately) after'.

Cause may sometimes be implied in the use of 'on': 'on this account'; 'on the failure of his plans, he threw up the project' is both 'when and because his plans failed'.

Reference can also find expression by 'on', as we have seen under 'of' (§ 3). 'A work on politics, on finance, on music, &c.'; 'to speak on the terms of peace'. In Elizabethan English, 'on' was often used where we must now use 'of', especially to express reference: 'to be jealous on one'; 'fond on praise'; 'he shall hear on't'; 'what shall become on me?'
And in other cases as well: 'at root on's heart'; 'the lord

on't (of it, the island)'; 'i' the middle on's face'; 'we are

such stuff as dreams are made on '.

Opposition is given by 'on 'in such combinations as-'declare, make war on', &c.

Many phrases involve this preposition: 'on fire', 'on the wing', 'on the alert', 'on a sudden', 'on view', 'on a great scale', 'on the part of', 'on my honour' 'his blood be on us'.

'Rely in' is an error for 'rely on'; 'founded in truth', for 'on truth'. Scot. 'He was married on (to) such a person'; 'I have waited long on (for) an answer'; 'I saw him on or upon (in) the street '.

'On' is opposed by off, another form of 'of'.

By ellipsis, 'off' is more in use as an adverb than as a preposition: 'off the ground', 'off my shoulders', 'off work'.

The adverbial meaning is the same, and is seen in composition with verbs, as 'get off', 'break off', 'be off', 'draw off', 'drive off', 'keep off', 'pay off', 'drink off'. 'Set off' (on a journey), should be 'set out'. The phrases 'well off', 'badly off', are somewhat peculiar; there is probably an ellipsis of some subject, as if we were to say 'he is well off that business'.

Up, down, are opposed meanings.

'Up stairs', 'down stairs'; 'up hill, down hill'; 'up the stream', 'down the stream'; 'down the vale of years'.

Adverbial form: 'the price of stock is up'; 'his spirits were up; 'the county is up (in arms)'. 'Look up', 'fill up', 'lead up', 'hush up'. 'Come down', 'sit down', 'bring down', 'pull down', 'take down', 'run down', 'write down', 'put down'.

Upon is a modification or variety of the simple preposition 'on', which can be used for it in nearly every case.

'Upon a hill', 'upon the right', 'upon condition', 'upon security', 'upon a footing', 'upon the parish' (for subsistence or support), 'upon principle', 'upon record', 'upon trial', 'upon a time', 'upon occasion', 'upon this,' 'go upon the ice', 'enter upon an undertaking'. 'Kings break faith upon commodity '(Shakespeare) = 'when and because they can gain by doing so '.

In adverbial combinations; 'dwell upon', 'descant upon', 'gaze upon', 'prey upon', 'resolve upon'.

Scot. 'There is a meeting upon (on) Thursday'; 'he plays upon (on) the flute'.

Above, below, beneath, adhere with considerable regularity to their well-known sense—higher or lower in place.

The metaphorical applications of 'above' to signify superiority, dignity, clevation, are seen in such examples as 'above his rank', 'above his means', 'above comprehension', 'above board', 'above mean actions', 'above the brightness of the sun'.

The transition is easy to the meaning, more than, 'in excess of'; as 'above all', 'above the price of rubies', 'the serpent

is cursed above all cattle '.

Adverbially the sense is adhered to; as in referring to a former place in a book.

· 'Below', and 'beneath', are applied metaphorically to the

opposite states of inferiority and degradation: 'below the mark', 'beneath the yoke', beneath contempt'. Adv. 'He shrunk beneath'. Scot. 'Who lives above (over) you?' 'Below (under) water, ground, his clothes'.

Over means above in position: 'a naked sword hung over his head', 'a large hole over the mantelpiece'.

'Over' is extended from place to many other applications, preserving the main idea: 'power over', 'to watch over', predominate over', 'muse over', 'fear came over me'. 'Over the season,' is 'through the season': 'overnight' would be literally 'through the night', but means also 'after the commencement of the night'.

In composition the meaning is still preserved: 'overshoot', 'overhang', 'overcome'. In some compounds the idea implied is 'excess': 'overdo', 'overcharge', 'overestimate'. The transition is an obvious one.

The idea of 'covering' distinguishes this preposition from the allied word 'above', and has given to it a far greater stretch of The number of derivatives obtained from it is applications. very great.

Scot. 'They looked over (out at) the window'.

Under, the opposite of 'over': 'under the tree', 'under hatches', 'under water', 'under heaven'.

'Under' is often applied metaphorically. It is extended to subjection, dependence, and protection; as 'under the sovereign', 'under God'.

To the sustaining of anything as a burden, covering, or envelope: 'under obligation', 'under orders', under trial,'
'under apprehension', 'under reproaches', 'under necessity',
'under consideration', 'under the guise, or pretence, or character, or name of', 'under sail', 'under arms'.

To less in quantity; as 'under age', 'under the mark'.
'Under the seal of', is a more remote extension, and may be interpreted as 'under the authority or guarantee signified by the putting of a seal'.

The adverbial sense is in harmony with the other: 'bring under', 'put under', 'come under', 'go under', 'bend under'.

Through. The simple preposition for the idea of passage: 'through the gate', 'through the wood',

'through many hands', 'through the ranks', through the clouds', 'through the valley and shadow of death'.

The first step in advance of the primitive sense is to signify over the whole extent of a thing, from end to end, or from one side to another; as 'through all ranks', 'through all nations'; the application depending on the fact that passage implies successive contact, and a survey of what is gone over.

Owing to the facility for gaining our wishes implied in a free passage, an open door, or a medium of conveyance, the word farther takes on the meaning of instrumentality, cause, means: 'through industry', 'through influence', 'through the minister', 'through the swiftness of his horse'. A difference may be noted between this kind of instrumentality and that expressed by 'with'; a difference arising out of the primitive sense of the words.

Time: 'through the ages', 'through the winter', 'through the session'.

Throughout is a strengthened form.

Scot. 'He walked through (across) the room'; 'he will learn through (in) time'; 'he walks through (in) his sleep'.

Along is 'by the long or length of': 'along the shore', 'along the road', 'alongside'.

No metaphorical extensions of any importance are to be noted.

Adv. 'Come along', 'wander along', 'drive along', 'glide along'.

Across, 'on the cross': 'across the river', 'across the street', 'across the Atlantic', 'across his shoulders'.

Adv. 'Lay across', 'swim across'.

Before, in the front of, with or without proximity: 'before the door', 'before Sebastopol', 'before the face of', 'before the magistrate', 'before the wind'.

By a natural transition it applies to precedence, preference, or superiority: 'before his betters', 'before his regiment', 'he was placed before the knights'.

The application to priority of time is one of the chief uses of

the word: 'before day', 'before long', 'before the age'.

In the adverbial applications both place and time are denoted, more especially time: 'looking before and after'.

After, opposed to 'before' in the signification of precedence in rank, and in expressing time.

The full application to place is seen in the adverbial and adjective uses of the word: 'lagging after', 'the after-part of the building'.

By an obvious figure it is used with words signifying pursuit and inquiry, and also desire: 'follow after', 'search after', 'hunger and thirst after', 'longing after immortality'.

By a farther extension, also quite accountable, we find it signifying imitation or following a lead: 'after Titiens', 'after the original, the model', 'to name after'.

Behind, as opposed to 'before', means 'in the rear of', 'at the back of': 'behind the scenes', 'behind a cloud', 'behind the back'.

Hence such applications as inferiority, being left out, a remainder in arrear, at a distance, out of sight, disregarded.

The adverbial compounds with verbs are of a like tenor: 'stay

behind', 'fall behind', 'walk behind', 'look behind'.

Between. When two objects are separated, the intervening space, or anything in a middle position, is expressed by this word in its primary sense: 'between decks', 'between times'.

Hence it is applied to express all that goes on in such a situation: 'passing between'; 'intercourse or communication between; 'coincidence, similarity, contrast, or difference between' (the result of the comparison that may take place when two things are near each other); so 'friendship, relationship, understanding between', 'contest and rivalry between', 'to adjudicate between'; also community or partnership; as 'possessing property between them '.

'Between' expresses 'in the midst of two'; but the etymology is often disregarded in its application. 'Such differences between these three great poets' (Grote); 'the days when my mother and I and Peggotty were all in all to one another, and there was no one to come between us, rose up before me'

(Dickens).

'Among(st)' and 'amid(st)' imply a greater

number of things surrounding; 'among the trees', 'among friends', 'amidst his flock'.

'They parted my raiment among them'. Scot. 'I stuck among (in) the mud'.

To meditate amongst decay, and stand A ruin amidst ruins.'

Strictly, 'to divide between' implies two; 'to divide among', more than two.

Beyond. The primary meaning is outside of in place, 'on the far side of': 'beyond sea', 'beyond bounds', 'beyond hearing'.

'Beyond' is extended meta; horically to signify superiority or excess in a great many other properties; thus, 'beyond the number or amount', 'beyond his power or his means', 'beyond him', 'beyond description', 'beyond dispute', 'beyond measure', 'beyond the grave'. 'To go beyond' is to deceive, or circumvent.

Abaft. A sea term exclusively: 'no smoking abaft this funnel'.

Round, Around: 'round the house', 'run round the common', 'around the fire'.

'Round' adheres literally to its well-known primary significacation, except in the one phrase 'to get round a person', for 'to wheedle or prevail with', 'to circumvent'.

About has the primary meaning of 'around', but is much more vaguely applied. It passes off into signifying a certain indefinite nearness or proximity, the being contained in a place somewhere or other; as 'about the house', 'about the town', 'about the country', 'about the person'.

This is also the force of the word as applied to time: 'about midnight' means not exactly midnight, but some time not far off.

So with number: 'about a hundred'. From expressing nearness it becomes also a preposition of reference; as 'about my father's business', 'about who was greatest', 'about the origin of evil'.

As an adverb, its force is seen in 'go about'.

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14. III. Agency. The agent, instrument, or means of an action is indicated by the Prepositions 'by', 'through',' with'; and by the *phrases*, 'by means of', 'by virtue of', 'through the instrumentality of', 'by help of', 'by force of', &c.

The simple prepositions have been already explained. The phrases derive their signification of agency from the noun: 'by means of a powerful connexion'; 'by virtue of his position as judge'; 'through the instrumentality of a skilful agent'; 'by help of favourable circumstances'; 'by force of earnest solicitation'.

15. IV. End, purpose, motive, or reason: 'for', 'from'. *Phrases*: 'out of', 'on account of', 'by way of', 'for the sake of', 'for the ends of', 'in consideration of', 'on the score of', 'from a regard to', 'with a view to', 'with an eye to'.

As all the actions of human beings are for some end, the statement of the end is often required. The leading preposition is 'for'; 'he works for his bread'. When the feeling to be gratified is pointed out, 'from' is employed: 'he works from hunger'; 'he reads from curiosity (for information)'. 'Out of kindness'; 'on account of mere ambition'; 'by way of strengthening his case'; 'for the sake of peace'; 'for the ends of justice'; 'in consideration of his former good conduct'; 'on the score of ill health'; 'from a regard to character'; 'with a view to a good education'. The meaning of the noun suggests the suitable application of the prepositional phrases. We should say, 'in consideration of his youth, he was slightly punished', but 'on account of the serious character of the offence'; consideration implying a favourable sentiment.

- 16. V. Reference: 'on', 'of', 'about', 'touching', 'concerning'; 'with reference to', 'as for', 'as to', 'as regards', 'on the subject of', 'on the matter of', 'on the point of', 'in respect of'.
- 'On the beautiful'; 'I sing of war'; 'he came to speak to me about his journey'; 'touching the law'; 'concerning his interests'; 'with reference to your application'; 'as for that'; 'as to him'; 'as regards the progress of the suit'; 'on the subject of explosive mixtures'; 'on the matter of the sale'; 'in respect of your wishes'.

Allied to reference is Supposition for which there are several prepositional phrases, although the meaning is more usually expressed by conjunctions: 'in the event of', 'on the supposition of', 'in case of'.

'In the event of his not arriving'; 'on the supposition of there being an abundant supply'; 'in case of failure'.

- 17. VI. Separation and Exclusion: 'without', 'save', 'except', 'besides', 'but', 'setting aside', 'putting on one side', '(apart) from', '(far) from'.
- 'Without arms'; 'save one'; 'except England'; 'besides his own'; 'setting aside the question of compensation'; 'putting (leaving) on one side the fear of consequences'; 'none but him'; 'apart from his companions'; 'far from home'.
- 18. VII. Inclination and Conformity: 'for', '(according) to', 'in accordance with', '(agreeably) to', 'in pursuance of'.
- 'For (the ends of) justice'; 'according to use and wont'; 'in accordance with the views of both parties'; 'agreeably to your instructions'; 'in pursuance of the arrangements already entered on'.
- 19. VIII. Aversion, Opposition: 'against', 'with'. 'athwart'; 'in spite of', 'in defiance of'.
- 'A decree against law'; 'to contend with one'; 'athwart the wishes of friends'; 'in spite of fate'; 'in defiance of his professions'.
- 20. IX. Substitution: 'for', 'instead of', 'in room of', 'in place of', 'on the part of' '(as a substitute) for '.
- 'An eye for an eye'; 'instead of his brother'; (by way of evasion) 'fair words instead of deeds'; 'in room of the deceased'; 'in place of one of the officials'; 'as a substitute for a bridge'. Scot. 'In place of (instead of) pitying him, they laughed at him'.
- 21. X. Possession, Material: 'of', '(belonging) to', '(the property) of', '(made) of'.
- 22. It has been seen that some words are both prepositions and adverbs. A preposition is known by its governing a noun, or a phrase corresponding to a noun. Thus an infinitive phrase is frequently governed by a preposition: 'on coming home'; 'on breaking the seal'; 'after considering the case'; 'without straining hard'; 'the reason of his answering so soon'.

#### THE CONJUNCTION.

#### Definition.

I. Conjunctions join Sentences together: 'day ends and night begins'; 'they were equal in power, but they were not equally esteemed '.

This is the primary use of the words called Conjunctions. When two sentences are joined by a word expressing the relation of the one to the other, the word of relation—and, but, if, or is a conjunction. But the remark is also made, that besides joining complete sentences, clauses, or affirmations, the conjunction may join parts of sentences, and even single words:-'Abraham saw my day afar off and was glad;' 'Napoleon and Wellington were great generals'. These, however, are obviously contractions, and, when restored to the full form, give distinct dictums: 'Napoleon was a great general, and Wellington was a great general'. 'He is neither a fool, nor a rogue'; 'neither he is a fool, nor he is a rogue'.

The following examples are not so obviously contractions:— 'two and two is four'; 'if they stand between you and me'. Again, 'put it under lock and key', seems impossible to resolve into separate sentences: the reason is that it is the last stage of several abbreviations. Very familiar objects that in the first instance would need to be expressed at some length, are in the end given by the fewest possible words that will make a meaning. A lock is a complicated machine; it consists of two separable and yet related members; the one is called the lock, and the other the key; the two together are called shortly 'lock and key'. So 'man and wife', 'parent and child', 'master and servant', 'north and south', are abbreviated correlatives united by 'and'. When we say of two persons 'they are husband and wife', we cannot resolve the conjunction immediately into two separate affirmations, yet remotely the 'and' connects distinct statements or sentences, such as these :- 'human beings are of two classes; the one class are males, who become husbands, and the other class are females who become wives'. We come to abridge these sentences by leaving out all the words, but the two essential—husband, wife—and couple these by 'and'. But for this we should have to say - 'one of these persons is a husband, and the other is (his) wife'

Some words are Conjunctions and never anything else: such are-'and', 'or', 'nor', 'if', 'because', 'lest'. Other words

are, now at least, principally Prepositions, and become conjunctions by being prefixed to a clause; these are—'before', 'after', 'since', 'ere', 'until', 'for'. The old English construction was to supply the demonstrative 'that' for the preposition to govern:—'After that I was turned I repented', 'after that I was instructed, &c.' The dropping of the demonstrative leaves the preposition in direct contact with the clause, and it is then said to be a conjunction.

Certain adverbs are included among the conjunctions. These are words that are purely relative, or stand in need of a second clause to give a meaning. 'He is industrious, therefore he is happy.' The word 'therefore' would not suffice of itself to qualify he is happy'; there must be a previous clause to give the meaning, or the reason why he is happy. By this circumstance, 'therefore' serves the office of a conjunction. It is a relative adverb, conjunctive adverb, or adverbial conjunction. Of the same class are—'likewise', 'also', 'still', 'yet', 'nevertheless', 'notwithstanding', 'however', 'consequently', 'hence', 'accordingly'.

### · Classes of Conjunctions.

2. There are two leading divisions of Conjunctions—Co-ordinating and Subordinating.

Co-ordinating Conjunctions join co-ordinate clauses; that is, independent affirmations.

Subordinating conjunctions unite subordinate or dependent clauses to the principal clause of a sentence.

- 3. I. The Co-ordinating Conjunctions are classed according to the relation existing between the united clauses. They may indicate that the second is a clause of Addition or Cumulation ('and'), of Opposition or Contrast ('but'), or of Effect or Consequence ('therefore').
- 4. (1.) Cumulative Conjunctions are such as unite one clause with a second whose meaning adds to what precedes: 'AND', 'also', 'likewise', 'as well as', 'not only—but', 'partly—partly', 'first—then—secondly,' &c., 'further', 'moreover', 'now', 'well'.

And couples or unites two affirmations, and does no more.

This is the chief of the class; it is a strict conjunction; the rest are adverbs having the same general effect, but with additional circumstances or shades of meaning.

Both—and puts special emphasis on the combination.

Also marks some similarity in the second statement.

Very often, however, there is little implied in it beyond what would be signified by 'and'.

### Likewise is nearly the same as 'also'.

It was considered that there was point in the remark made on the son of a famous Scotch judge, who had succeeded to his father's office, but not to his ability; 'he was a judge also, but not likewise'. 'Likewise' often connects one sentence with a preceding, having nearly the force of 'and'.

As well as gives an especial emphasis to the union; in most cases more particularly to the first member.

'He as well as you' is more forcible than 'he and you'.
'No less than' has a similar effect. Both expressions are strictly subordinating connectives.

Not only—but indicates strongly the fact that the first mentioned circumstance does not stand by itself, and thus emphasises the second.

Instead of saying 'England and all the rest of Europe', we may say, when we mean to put stress on the circumstance of England's not standing alone, 'not only England, but all the rest of Europe'.

### Partly-partly. Half-half. Now-now.

'He spoke partly from conviction, partly from prudence.' He consented, half from cupidity, half from fear.' 'He dwelt now among the Britons, now among the Mercians.' These and similar forms also couple or add two predications, introducing at the same time a circumstance that seems suitable to the special case.

First, then, secondly, &c. The numers'

adverbs indicate cumulation; the additional circumstances being definite order and a means of reference.

Further, Moreover, mean that the case is not yet exhausted, there is more to be said upon it.

Now is transferred from present time to indicate present circumstances. It introduces the middle link in an argument, and it offers explanation.

The effect of 'now' commencing a sentence is to follow up a statement by something that completes it, so as to enable an inference to be drawn. Thus if a condition be premised from which something follows, the compliance with the condition would be expressed by 'now', and the conclusion by 'therefore'. 'He was promised a holiday if he executed his task; now he has done the task, therefore he is entitled to the holiday'. (The minor premise of the syllogism is correctly introduced by 'now'.)

'Not this man, but Barabbas; now Barabbas was a robber.'

Here 'now' adds an explanatory circumstance.

Well implies that hitherto all is satisfactory and indisputable, and that the way is clear for proceeding another step.

It is in the consecutive sentences of a Paragraph that these adverbial connectives come most frequently into play, and when carefully employed, they add much to the clearness of the connexion.

The omitting of a conjunction has the force of cumulation; the mere fact of stating one thing after another, with no word expressing opposition, or conditionality, or other relationship, leaves it to be understood that they are to the same general effect, just as if we were to employ 'and' to unite them. This omission may also suggest inference: 'The wind passeth over it; it is gone'.

- 5. (2.) Adversative Conjunctions place the second Sentence or Clause in some kind of opposition to what precedes. This Class is subdivided into three species.
  - (a.) Exclusive: 'not—but', 'else', 'otherwise', 'or'.

Not—but excludes or puts aside one fact to bring another into prominence.

'A struggle, not for empire, but for existence.' 'He did not speak, but he fought.' 'We must think not whom we are following, but what we are doing.'

Else, otherwise, 'on any other supposition'.

These adverb conjunctions have a definite and important signification; 'it is so, had it not been so, something would have happened'. 'He came to town yesterday, otherwise I should not have met him'; that is, 'if he had not come to town yesterday'.

Or similarly implies the exclusion of the first circumstance.

'I must seem to be angry, or (= otherwise, if I do not seem to be angry), she too may begin to despise my authority.'

(b.) Alternative: 'either—or', 'neither—nor', 'whether—or'. 'Whereas' and 'while' may be added.

The general meaning of each of these couples is well known, but there are some special meanings worth noting.

Or sometimes expresses a mere alternative name, or synonyme, the thing being the same: 'Christ, or (that is) the Messiah'.

In judicial proceedings this is expressed by alias. We are hence, sometimes, at a loss to know whether an alternative is merely verbal, or is real.

We have just seen the use of 'or' for 'otherwise': 'you must study hard, or you cannot succeed'.

Nor is sometimes a contraction for 'and not'.

'He foresaw the consequences, nor were they long delayed' (and they were not).

These alternative conjunctions are not always confined to two things.

'He regarded her as either an impostor, or a madwoman, or a compound of both.' 'Neither wind, nor rain, nor aught else, can cool our affection.'

'For I have neither wit, nor words, nor worth, Action, nor utterance, nor the power of speech, To stir men's blood.'

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Lords threw it out'. If it were usual for the Lords to agree with the Commons, their opposition would be a surprise, and would be expressed by 'but'. Where there is no surprise, a cumulative conjunction is to be preferred. 'Parliament passed the measure, but the King refused his consent', would, under the custom of the English constitution, be a proper construction.

'But' is the conjunction of epigram.

But then. A more emphatic form of 'but'; equal to 'but in that case, or on that supposition'.

Still suggests a pause to hear what is to be said by way of exception or opposition to the previous statements.

'Still' is an equivalent of 'but', and even more emphatic: 'everything went against him; still he persisted'. As it is a greater break in the flow of the composition than 'but', it is a preferable word for commencing a period, or the second member of a period divided by a semicolon.

Yet. The peculiar force of 'yet' is brought out by its connexion with 'though': 'though deep, yet clear'.

When 'though' is not expressed, it is understood, and the meaning of 'yet' is almost the same. The intention is as it were formally to concede a point that would seem to carry a certain consequence with it, and at the same time to forbid that consequence.

Nevertheless. In conveying the same general meaning as the foregoing, this long word makes a considerable break or pause.

It is therefore suitable for introducing a longer declaration, as in commencing a period, or an extended member of a period.

However. A word of like purport to the foregoing. It has the peculiarity of being often placed in the middle of its sentence or clause.

'That course, however, he was not inclined to take.' The advantage of such an arrangement is, that the conjunction does not stand between the two connected statements, and so permits the reference to be emphatically close.

Only. Placed at the beginning of an assertion 'only' has the effect of 'but'.

Do as you please; only let your intention be apparent; that is, your doing so is still to permit this one thing, namely, that you make your intention apparent.

For all that, in spite of all that, notwithstanding all that, are phrases that produce the arrestive effect, and are suitable to be made use of when a more than ordinary emphasis is demanded. This emphasis they give partly from the force of the words, partly from their occupying the attention by their length.

At the same time. Another phrase belonging to the arrestive class, without much speciality in its application.

6. (3.) Illative Conjunctions express effect, or consequence: 'therefore', 'wherefore', 'hence', 'whence', 'consequently', 'accordingly', 'thus', 'so', 'so that', 'then', 'so then'.

Therefore is the typical word of the class.

It is also the most frequently made use of. The rest do little more than afford synonymes to vary the composition. Wherefore is equal to 'and therefore'; hence, the same as 'from this'; whence like 'wherefore', dispenses with 'and' when we should say 'and hence'.

Consequently is the equivalent of 'as a consequence'.

Accordingly may mean 'consequence' or 'effect', like the preceding.

It is also suited by its etymology to a rather different meaning sometimes important to be signified,—'in harmony with'. 'The arrangements are that the cavalry and artillery shall move in advance; accordingly, you (the cavalry) are to leave your position', &c.

Thus and so, like 'accordingly', are words originally implying comparison or similarity of manner, and extended to signify inference or consequence.

'Thus' is employed after stating a principle to introduce an example or case in point; as much as to say 'we shall give an instance of what is intended'. It also expresses a comparison in the strict sense; as in the passage from the Pleasures of Hope: 'At summer's eve, when heaven's ethereal bow', &c.—thus (adv. of manner or comparison) with delight we linger'.

The existence of these two distinct uses renders the word less apt as an illative conjunction, although still admissible.

'So', whose primary function is to make a comparison, can also express a consequence. 'There was nothing to be seen, so

we went our way'.

So that is more specific than 'so'; the addition of 'that' excludes the meaning of comparison; hence this combination is one of our most precise forms of signifying inference. Its most characteristic import is, 'to such a degree that'.

Then. From having as an adverb the force of 'after that', or 'in the next place', 'then' has been included among illative conjunctions; the fact of one thing following another being given as showing causation or inference.

The same explanation applies to the adoption of 'consequently', 'it follows that', as words signifying cause and effect.

'Then' is more commonly used in a compound phrase, 'so then', 'and then', but it may, standing alone, have the full force of 'therefore', in drawing an inference, or stating an effect, or a consequence. 'So then the cause was gained', signifies 'by those means it came about as an effect that', &c.

To vary the expression of this important relationship, as well as occasionally to make it more emphatic and precise, we use phrases of greater length; as 'the effect, consequence, result, upshot was'; 'the inference is'; 'it follows'; 'it may be concluded, inferred', &c.

- 7. II. The Subordinating Conjunctions are divided according to the various relations or modes of dependence; as Reason (because), Condition (if), End (that), Precaution (provided that), Time (when).
- 8. (1.) Conjunctions of Reason and Cause: 'because', 'for', 'since', 'as', 'whereas', 'inasmuch as', 'seeing (considering, &c.) that'.

When we invert an illative connexion, stating the consequence as the main clause the other is then assigned as the reason: 'he is in earnest, therefore he will succeed' (illative); 'he will succeed, because he is in earnest' (reason). The clause 'because he is in earnest', is a subordinate or dependent clause; in other words, the fact is given not for its own sake, but as bearing out something else. The conjunctions introducing these clauses are, therefore, called subordinating.

Because, by its derivation, is the word for assigning a cause.

Moral causes, or motives acting on the mind, are expressed by this conjunction: 'he reads because he has thought himself hungry; he writes because he has read himself full'. Physical causation is stated in this example: 'the crops failed, because the season was dry'.

For is used in assigning causation, in giving what is called the logical reason or proof, and in explaining or accounting for a thing.

'The brook will be very high, for a great deal of rain fell in the night' (physical cause) a great deal of rain must have fallen, for the brook is high' (the logical reason or proof). 'Hopressed on, for his ambition was still unsatisfied' (explanation). The word is especially appropriate in this last sense. A characteristic application is seen in such a sentence as 'do as you are told, for much depends on it'; here there is a blank or ellipsis, and when that is filled up, the conjunction shows itself in the sense of giving the reason or proof: 'do as you are told; if you fail, the consequences will be serious, for (or the proof of which is) much depends on it'.

Since literally means something that is past, and hence settled and fixed, so that whatever consequences depend on it must now arise.

'Since you desire it, I will look into the matter.' It declares a certain circumstance to have occurred, and gives that as a reason for the main affirmation.

As derives its use as a subordinating conjunction of reason from the original idea of declaring similarity or comparison.

'As we are at leisure, let us see what is to be seen'; the 'as' here assigns a reason for our seeing, &c., and it does so by indicating a sort of similarity or harmony between the positions of our being at leisure and our seeing all we can: 'it is in accordance with our situation to see', &c. 'Let us act out, conform to, or resemble our position', &c. Although 'as' is thus included among the subordinating conjunctions of reason, there is more frequent danger of ambiguity with it than with the others of the class.

Whereas introduces the preamble in every Act of Parliament, giving the reason or motive of the enactment, or the evil to be remedied by the provisions that follow.

Hence it is strictly a conjunction of reason, but its employ-

ment in this sense is mostly confined to legal compositions.

The meaning belonging to the word in ordinary style is different. 'I offered to take the lot entire, whereas every one else wished it divided.' Here it plainly indicates a contrast between two things. See § 5 (2) (b).

Inasmuch as, forasmuch as. These are compound equivalents of 'since', 'as', and 'whereas' (in the sense of a preamble). 'Forasmuch as many have taken in hand to set forth in order, '&c.

Seeing that, considering that, have a special appropriateness when the reason grows out of circumstances reflected on by the mind.

- 'Seeing that you cannot get what you ask, take what you can get.' 'Considering that the world is so intricate, we are not to be surprised that science has progressed slowly.' The only peculiarity of these phrases as conjunctions of reason is derived from the meaning of the words 'seeing', 'considering'.
- 9. (2.) Conjunctions of Supposition, Condition, or Qualification: 'if', 'supposing (that)', 'if not', 'unless', 'except', 'without', 'otherwise', 'whether', 'as if', 'though', 'notwithstanding', 'albeit'.
- If. When a thing is stated not absolutely or unconditionally, but under a certain condition, supposition, or qualification, 'if' is the principal word for expressing the condition.

'I will, if I can;' 'if I could, I would'. This is the main use of the conjunction, to which it adheres with considerable uniformity.

A peculiar and somewhat ambiguous employment of the word is seen in the fable, where the ant says to the grasshopper, 'If you sung in summer, dance in winter', where 'if' has the force of a reason, the condition being a realised fact, 'since, or as you sung'. These are cases where the conjunction is always followed by the indicative mood.

Supposing that, on the supposition, presumption, allegation, hypothesis that, are phrases that vary the mode of introducing conditional statements; they carry their own meaning with them. In case (that) is a very convenient and often-wanted phrase for anticipating contingencies or eventualities. The prepositional phrase 'in the event of' is of the same tenor.

Provided that. See § 10, end.

If not is a conjunction of negative condition.

'Aristotle, the most sagacious, if not the most comprehensive, mind of antiquity', conveys an insinuation of doubt, although the context and the manner will often show that the speaker either believes or disbelieves the statement.

Unless and except are also conjunctions of negative condition.

'Unless (= if not) I hear to the contrary, I will be there.' Except (= unless, if not) ye repent, ye shall all likewise perish.'

Without was formerly used to signify 'if not': 'without you go, I will not'. The connexion of this sense with the usual force of the preposition is apparent.

Whether—or, whether, indicate a double case of conditionality.

'Whether he like it or not, he will have to go': that is 'whichever of the two suppositions be the fact, he will have to go'; 'if he like it, he will have to go'; 'if (though) he do not like it, he will have to go'.

In the expression 'I know not whether he will come,' the word 'if' sometimes takes the place of 'whether', as if conditionality were still suggested. The transition from stating conditionality to implying mere doubt is an obvious one; the meanings are still distinct.

As if is a compound conjunction carrying out the sense of both words.

'He started as if he saw a spirit', is elliptical for 'as he would have done if he,' &c.

Though, although, express concession, which is condition, with the circumstance that parties are willing to allow something that they might perhaps refuse.

'Though all men deny thee, yet will I not'; 'grant the supposition that all men, &c.'

When something is given as true with a certain limitation, we may use this word: 'they advanced steadily, though slowly'.

The use of 'yet' to preface the principal clause increases the emphasis of that clause, but does not affect the meaning of 'though' in connexion with the subordinate clause.

The omission of 'though' in the above example would make the clauses co-ordinate, united by the co-ordinating arrestive

conjunction 'yet'.

We have a variety of phrases for the present meaning: provided that, allowing that, granting that, &c. Supposing that also frequently implies that a concession is made.

Notwithstanding falls under the same head as the foregoing.

It is a verbal phrase converted into a preposition in the first instance, and then into a conjunction. It obviously means 'I am prepared to do a certain thing, granting what appear to be strong considerations or forces on the other side'.

'For all that, in spite of all that', are expressive synonymes for the co-ordinating meaning. 'Anyhow', 'at all events',

are other phrases of allied signification.

Albeit is an expressive combination, and ought not to be considered as obsolete, or old-fashioned.

10. (3.) Conjunctions of End, or Purpose: 'that', 'in order that', 'so—as', 'as—as', 'lest'.

That is the demonstrative pronoun, converted into our chief conjunction of end.

'We sow, that we may reap'; 'men toil, that they may attain to leisure'. The transference of the demonstrative to this peculiar use may be explained by supposing that after a fact is stated, the hearer is ready to ask 'what then?' 'what next?' 'what of it?' 'for what end?' whereupon the demonstrative supplies the information desired, 'that, (namely) we may reap'. Without assuming the natural desire to know why a thing is, or why an assertion is made, we cannot well account either for this conjunction or for the still greater blank of connecting words shown in the gerund construction: 'we sow to reap'; 'they stoop to rise; 'born but to die'; in all which the action expected to follow is simply named in its most naked form, the hearer being looked upon as asking why? or wherefore?

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The Interjection is not properly a part of speech, as it does not enter into the construction of sentences. It is a sudden exclamation prompted by some strong feeling or emotion. There are various utterances suited to the different emotions of the mind: as, joy, 'huzza!' 'hurra!' grief, 'O!' 'ah!' 'alas!' wonder, 'hah!' approbation, 'bravo!' aversion, 'pugh!' 'tush!' For calling attention, 'lo!' 'hush!' &c.

EXCLAMATION, one of the figures of rhetoric, employs words of ordinary language in the manner of interjections: 'what!' 'for shame!' 'ah me!' 'how strange!' 'hark!'



#### INFLEXION.

The second part of Etymology, called Inflexion, treats of the changes made on words to express various relations and meanings.

Thus the Noun and the Pronoun are changed in three ways, namely, to express difference of Gender, Number,

and Case. These changes constitute Declension.

The Adjective and the Adverb are inflected for Degree. This process is named Comparison.

The Verb is changed to signify Person, Number,

Time, &c. This is called Conjugation.

The uninflected Parts of Speech are the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

## INFLEXION OF NOUNS.

### GENDER.

I. Natural Gender: Gender follows Sex. In Modern English, the natural difference of sex determines the gender.

Beings possessing animal life are divided into the two classes. or Sexes, male and female; as man, woman; bull, cow. Plants and things destitute of life have no sex.

To this natural distinction corresponds the division of names,

according to Gender.

Names for individuals of the male sex are of the Masculine gender; as 'king', 'man', 'bull'.

Names for the female sex are of the Feminine

gender; as 'queen', 'woman', 'cow'.

Strictly speaking, these two are the only genders in Modern English.

Names for things without sex are said to be of the Neuter Gender, that is, are simply left as of no gender; as 'gold', 'mountain', 'bread', 'oak'.

'Neuter' is Latin for 'neither'; that is, here, neither masculine nor feminine.

Many words are applied to both sexes alike; as 'parent', 'child', 'cousin'. These are said to be of the Common Gender.

The names applied to the greater number of the inferior animals are of this sort, it being only in the more important and best known species that we are at the pains to note the sex. Thus, 'trout', 'ant', 'lizard', are common to both sexes. If we wish, on occasion, to mark the sex, we use a special designation, as the prefix 'he' or 'she', or the adjectives 'male', 'female'. 'Man', and 'mankind', are often used comprehensively for both sexes. We also use other designations, such as 'actor', 'author', 'painter', 'poet', for both sexes, although they are properly masculine, and have feminine derivatives ('actress', &c.) The effect of this is to give very different meanings to the two phrases: 'the greatest of living actors', and 'the greatest of living actresses', applied to a woman. By the first she is designated the first actor of either sex, by the second the first of her own sex.

2. Purely Grammatical Gender. In Old English, the gender is often determined, not by the meaning, but by the form.

In modern English, gender follows sex (with a few exceptions); that is, masculine words and forms are confined to the male sex, feminine words and forms to the female sex. But in old English, as well as in many other languages, as Latin, Greek, &c., a poetical or figurative process of personifying things without life was in extensive operation, by which the distinction of gender was extended to nouns generally; and the adjective was regularly inflected in three forms, for masculine, feminine, and neuter.

Masculine endings were -a, -end, -ere, -ing (patronymic), -dom, -had, -scipe, &c.; as 'mona' (moon), 'wealdend' (wielding one, ruler), 'fiscere' (fisher), 'Wodning' (Woden's son), 'wisdom', 'cildhad' (childhood), 'freendscipe' (friendship).

Feminine endings were the abstract -nis (from adj.), -u, -ung or -ing (from verbs), &c.; as 'blithnis' (joy), 'caru' (care), 'leornung' or 'leorning' (learning).

Neuter endings were -ern, -lac, -en (diminutive), &c.; as bern (for 'bere-ærn', barley-house, barn), 'cnawlac' (know-ledge), 'mægden, mæden' (maiden).

In many cases the distinctive termination was dropt in course of time, the original gender still remaining: 'stræt' (for 'strætu', fem., street), &c.

In the 13th century there was great confusion of the genders; and in the 14th century, the modern system was pretty well

established.

## 3. There are three ways of distinguishing the Gender of Nouns.

I. By employing different words: as 'king, queen'; 'husband, wife'; 'boy, girl'; 'cock, hen'.

This is a question of the meaning of words, and not of grammar. It is not a method of inflexion, but a substitute for inflexion. The number of such words is not great. The following are the chief:—

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Bachelor	Maid	Father	Mother	Nephew	Niece
Boar	Sow	Friar	Sister	Papa	Mamma
Boy	Girl	Gander	Goose	Ram or	Ewe
Bridegroom	$\mathbf{Bride}$	Gentlema	n Lady	Wether \$	TAME
Brother	Sister	_Hart	Roe	Ruff	Reeve
Buck	Doe	Horse or	Mare	Sir or )	( Madam
Bull	Cow	Stallion	· -	Sire	{ Dame or
Bullock or ?	Heifer	Husband	Wife	, ,	( dam
Steer 5		King	Queen	Sloven	Slut
Cock	$\mathbf{Hen}$	Lad	Lass	$\mathbf{Son}$	Daughter
Colt or Foal		Lord	Lady	Stag	Hind
Dog or Hour		Mallard	Wild duck		Seamstress
Drake	Duck	Man	Woman	Tutor	Governess
Drone	Bee	Milter	Spawner	Uncle	Aunt
Earl	Countess	Monk	Nun	Wizard	Witch .

Some of these names, though distinct in appearance, are very closely connected in their original forms. Thus, 'gander' (old gan-d-ra, = ganr-a = gans-a; d being euphonic, r being substituted for an older s, and a the masc. termination) and 'goose' (old gos, for gons, gans) are radically the same word. 'Nephew' and 'niece' come through French from Lat. nepos and neptis. According to Dr. Morris, 'lord', old English hlaford, is for hlaf-weard (loaf-keeper), and the corresponding feminine is hlaf-weardige, contracted to old hlæfdige, which in course of time became 'lady'. 'Colt', 'foal', and 'filly', have been traced to a radical connexion. 'King' and 'queen' may possibly be, at bottom, the masc. and fem. forms of the same word. 'Lass' may be for 'lad-ess'. 'Man', in old English, was of both genders; 'woman' is O. E. wif-man (wife-man).

'Bridegroom' is a corruption of old brydguma, (bride's man); guma (man) being cognate with Lat. homo,—as gans

(goose) is cognate with Lat. (h)anser. 'Countess' is the derivative feminine of 'count', the French name for 'earl'. 'Girl' was of either gender as late as the 14th century, signifying 'a little child'.

'Drake' is explained, by reference to cognate forms, as a contraction of end-rake (duck-king): cp. Germ. enterich (drake): it is wholly distinct from 'duck'.

The giving of different words to denote gender is an exceptional usage, and is accounted for in most cases by the great difference of function of the two sexes.

Thus men and women perform offices so different, and sustain characters so distinct through the various relationships of life, that we are not surprised at their being designated by different words. A 'daughter' is literally 'the milker', or 'milkmaid', because that was the office that the daughters of the house fulfilled in early pastoral times. So the 'horse' and 'mare', the 'bull or ox' and 'cow', the 'ram' and 'ewe', &c., have broadly marked distinctions in their uses and employments, which probably suggested the difference of appellation in each case.

In a few instances there is a noun of common gender as well as separate designations of the sexes.

#### Thus—

### These are also various compounds:—

père) Gentle-man Grand-father Land-lord	Foster-mother Gammer (grand'- mère) Gentle-woman Graud-mother Land-lady Mer-maid	Milk-man Moor-cock Pea-cock Step-father Step-son Turkey-cock French-man	Milk-maid Moor-hen Pea-hen Step-mother Step-daughter Turkey-hen French-woman
mer-man	Mer-maid	r rencu-man	r rench-woman

# 4. II. By prefixing a word indicating the sex:

MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.
Male-servant Man-servant Man-kind He-bear He-goat	Female-servant Maid-servant Woman-kind She-bear She-goat	Boar-pig Buck-rabbit Bull-calf Cock-sparrow Dog-fox	Sow-pig Doe-rabbit Cow-calf Hen-sparrow Bitch-fox

- 'Woman' (wif-man, wife-man) is originally an instance under this head. 'Man-child', and 'knave-girl' for 'boy', 'tom-cat' (old 'carl-catt'), 'ewe-lamb', 'queen-bee', &c., are similar examples.
- 5. III. By the use of distinctive suffixes, or terminations: -ess, -trix, -ine, -a, (Romance suffixes), -en, -ster, for adding to the masculine to make the feminine; and -er, rake, for adding to the feminine to make the masculine.

This is the only mode of real inflexion.

-ess (Fr. esse, M. Lat. issa) is the ordinary feminine suffix in Modern English.

Up till about the middle of the 14th century, -ess was attached only to a few words, these words being, like itself, of Norman-French origin. In the second half of the 14th century, it became established as the usual feminine ending for nouns of whatever origin.

Sometimes -ess is added to the masculine, without further change:

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Baron Count Dauphin Deacon	Baroness Countess Dauphiness Deaconess	Heir Host Jew Lion	Heiress Hostess Jewess Lioness	Patron Peer Poet Priest	Patroness Peeress Poetess Priestess
Giant	Giantess	Mayor	Mayor <i>ess</i>	Prophet	Prophetess 5

'Tutor-ess', 'viscount-ess', and many others, might be added. 'God, god-d-ess'; 'prince, princ-ess'; 'ogre, ogress'.

Sometimes the special masculine ending is omitted before -ess is added:

masc. *	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Abbot	Abbess	Cater <i>er</i>	Cater <i>ess</i>
Negro	Negress	Murderer	Murderess
Governor	Governess	Sorcerer	Sorceress

'Abbot' is O. E. abbod, Lat. abbātem; 'abbess' is shortened from 'abbudisse' (Lat. abbatissam), the oldest example of this ending in English. 'Governor, -ess', 'murderer, -ess', &c., practically add the masc. or the fem. termination to the verb root; the addition of -ess to the masculine would make a troublesome pronunciation. 'Sorcerer' is a corruption of Fr. sorcier, Lat. sortiārium (from sortes, lots, oracles); 'sorceress' seems to be formed on much the same principle as the preceding.

Sometimes the masculine ending is, or appears to be, modified before ess is added:

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Actor Benefactor Conductor Doctor Duke	Actress Benefactress Conductress Doctress Duchess	Founder Instructor Marquis Master Protector	Foundress Instructress Marchioness Mistress Protectress
Emperor Enchanter	Empress Enchantress	Tiger Traitor	Tigress Traitress

'Duchess' is old Fr. duc-esse, duch-esse. 'Emperor' is Fr. empereur, shortened from Lat. imperātorem; 'empress' was previously 'emperesse' (13th century), 'emperice' (12th century), a shortening of Fr. imperatrice, Lat. imperātrīcem. 'Marchioness' is Lat. marchionissa, from masc. form marchio(nem). 'Mistress' corresponds to 'mister' rather than to 'master'; in O. E. the forms were maister, maist(e)resse.

-trix, the feminine form of Lat. -tor, is found in a few nouns that come direct from the Latin:

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.		FEM.
Adjutor Administrator Director	Adju <i>trix</i> Administratrix Directrix	Execu <i>tor</i> Heritor Testator	45 2	Execu <i>trix</i> Heritrix Testatrix
(7)	4 4 .41 /		7 /	• • .

'Proprietor' has both 'proprietrix' and 'proprietress'. 'Directress' also occurs. 'Empress' has just been explained. 'Nurse', older nurice, norise, F. nourrice, Lat. nutricem.

-ine, -ina, is especially frequent in proper names of women.

MASC.	FEM.	MASC.	FEM.
Hero	Hero <i>ine</i>	Landgrave	Landgravine
Czar	Czarina	Margrave	Margravine

Caroline, Josephine, Pauline; Alex(andr)ina, &c.

-a occurs in some Romance words:

	*	27	
MASC.	FEM.	MASO.	FEM.
Don	$\mathbf{Donn}\boldsymbol{a}$	Infante	Infanta.
Sultan	Sultana	Signore	Signora.
		_	

'Beau' (old 'bel'), 'belle' come direct from French.

-en and -ster are the native Teutonic endings. Both are now obsolete.

-en remains only in 'vixen'.

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6. Poetical gender, or Personification.—Inanimate objects are sometimes spoken of as male or female, and are then said to be *personified*. Thus, it is customary with us, as with the Greeks and Romans, to speak of the Sun as masculine, and of the Moon as feminine.

The sun (fem. in O. E. and modern German), time, summer, winter, the morn, death, anger, fear, despair, are made masculine; the moon (masc. in O. E. and modern German), the earth, the dawn, night, Nature, the Church, Hope, Pity, are feminine. The planets are some masculine and some feminine, according to the sex of the deities that they owe their names to: Jupiter, Saturn, Mercury, &c.; Venus, Pallas, Vesta, &c. This is now considered a poetic licence.

The modern English practice of confining distinction of gender to difference of sex, renders those occasional deviations very impressive, by actually suggesting to the mind the idea of personal existence and attributes; whereas in Old English, Greek, Latin, French, &c., the assigning of gender to things inanimate produces no effect on the mind. A German speaks

of his spoon as he, his fork as she, and his knife as it.

The motives for assigning the masculine gender to some things, and the feminine gender to others, are supposed to be the following:—Things remarkable for strength, superiority, majesty, sublimity, as Death, Time, Winter, War, have been looked upon as masculine. Gentleness, beauty and grace, fertility or productiveness, belonging or imagined to belong, to things, suggest a feminine personification; as the Earth, Spring, Hope, Virtue, Truth, Justice, Mercy, Peace. Things very much identified with their owner are occasionally spoken of as she: the seaman calls his ship 'she'; to call a watch or a clock 'she' is a common Scotticism.

7. The knowledge of the Gender of a Noun is necessary in order to the correct use of the Pronouns, 'he', 'she', 'it', and their inflexions and derivatives.

The concord of the common gender is arranged thus. For the more distinguished beings, we may use the masculine, in its representative sense; as in speaking of a member of the human family, we may say 'he', although women are also included. The most correct form, although somewhat clumsy, is to say 'he or she'. (See Syntax—Concord of Pronouns.)

### NUMBER.

I. Singular and Plural.—When a Noun (or Pronoun) names a single object, it is said to be of the Singular Number; as 'book', 'man'.

When more than one are named, the Noun usually undergoes a change, and is then said to be of the

Plural Number; as 'books', 'men'.

The singular is the original form of the noun.
In old English a dual number existed, but only in the personal pronouns of the first and second persons.

2. The Plural is formed in English, with a few exceptions, by adding -s (or -es) to the Singular: 'ship, 'ships'.

In Old English there was a class of masculine nouns forming the plural by the addition of -as to the singular; as 'smith', plur. 'smith-as'. In later English this -as became -es; as 'smith', plur. 'smith-es'. This came very near the -s or -x of the Norman-French, and the consequence was that the form in -es was extended to English nouns generally, all the other old English plural endings being dropped. The change came into operation as early as the thirteenth century. In the next century, -es began to cease to be pronounced as a separate syllable, and the -e- was dropt: 'smithes' became 'smiths'.

The bringing of the -s into the same syllable with preceding letters (other than 'e') led to certain phonetic modifications.

(1.) When the Noun ends in a surd or sharp consonant (-p, -f, -t, -th [as in 'smith', 'thin'], -k), the -s has its own proper surd or sharp sound as in 'gas,' 'sea': as 'crops', 'beliefs', 'cats', 'wreaths', 'books'.

This is a necessity of pronunciation; we are unable to pronunce a surd and a sonant together; we cannot say 'cropz', 'beliefz' 'catz', without such a pause between the letters as would constitute a new syllable. The same reason determines the next rule (2).

Exceptions in '-f'. Nouns of native origin ending in -f preceded by a long vowel (except 'oo') or by 'l', change the -f into -v-; and -s is pronounced as -z: 'losi, losves' (lien), 'wife, wives' (lec), 'alf, alres'; 

The same of fine of the same o ्राच्या कर्म क्लांस देखों उ 

the to be done in once where "I" should be wise work 

When a shart vessel, or long 'te', pricelles 'f', the general

Living a strong in the later to in the later to the strong in the same

National and in the control of the last one in the Carlotter.

Exceptions in the Some Board in the change the said or breathed the into the samual or rocal the (= dh), and therefore sound final 'a' as '-z'.

C. When the North ends in certain success of the -s has

the corresponding sonant or flat sound -z: 2s 'cabs', (= kalz), 'graves' (graz), 'gods' (odz), 'booths', 'bogs', 'palms', 'pans', 'bells', 'masters', 'rings', 'grottos'.

In 'babe-s, graves, waves, droves, mode-s, have planed and sachike, the -c is merely a seeing device, to it insie that the preceding time is long. In sach words we do not use the planed ending -ca

himself sound (-, z) = -c (-) = -c (-)

The sibilant of the plans ending caunot be soled with distinct and several prominciation to a spliable ending with itself or another sibilant. In order to some it dear, the organs of speech houst make a special effort and a vovel— a is the easiest—must be similarly between the sibilant sounds. Hence the - of -a is dropt, in these cases, neither in prominciation not in spelling.

These three rules express a general principle of explorer, or accommodation, applicable wherever words are indected by the addition of 's' as in the possessive case of norms, and in the

third person singular of veris.

-es is added to some words ending in o.

Such are 'calloos, cargos, echos, beros, manifestos, malatros, perros, potatoes, volumoes', &c. This is a mere caprice of spelling, and the pronunciation is not affected.

Nouns ending in -y preceded by a consonant charge the -y into -ie-s to form the plural; as 'duty, duties'.

But nouns having a vowel before -y are regular (See (2)): 'boy, boys', 'valley, valleys'.

Formerly such words as duty, glory, were written dutally glorie, and the regular plurals of these — dutally, glories, have been retained unaltered, while his simpley has an account of change. This too is a mere matter of spelling, and has proper indexion of modification of the word.

The foregoing are the regular and modern processes of forming the plural in English.

3. Obsolete modes of inflexion are still seen in a small number of Nouns as 'man, men'; 'ox, oxen'; 'brother, brethren'; 'cow, kine'; 'child, children'.

## Change of vowel is seen in the following words:

 singular.
 plural.

 Man (O. E. man)
 Men (O. E. men)

 Foot (O. E. fót)
 Feet (O. E. fét)

 Goose (O. E. gós)
 Geese (O. E. gés)

 Tooth (O. E. toth)
 Teeth (O. E. teth)

 Louse (O. E. lús)
 Lice (O. E. lýs)

 Mouse (O. E. mus)
 Mice (O. E. mýs)

 Cow (O. E. cu)
 Ki(ne) (O.E. cý), Scot. kye.

The vowel change is not an inflexion; it is only an incidental result of the real inflexion, the ending representing which is now lost. The original plural of 'man' was 'manni'; and the modifying influence of final -i softened -a- into -e-; so that on the falling away of the inflexional ending, the plural appeared as 'men'. So 'fet' is for 'foti', 'lys' for 'lus-i', 'mys' for 'mus-i', &c.

In O. E. a few other nouns similarly modified their root vowels: as 'boc (book), bec'; 'broc, bréc' ('breeches', Scot. 'breeks'), 'turf, tyrf'; 'burh (burgh, borough), byrig'; 'furh (furrow), fyrh or fyrig'; 'wiht (wight, creature), wuht'.

The ending -en now remains only in 'ox-en' (O. E. 'ox-an').

In old English -an was a very common termination; later it was modified to -en. Other examples, not long obsolete or still in provincial use, are 'een' (Chaucer's and Spenser's 'eyen', 'eye-en' O. E. eag-an), 'esen' (eaves, O. E. efesen, esen), 'hosen' and 'shoon' (='shoe-en', O. E. scon), 'house-n', 'peat-en', 'pesen' (peas), 'pull-en' (fowls), 'toon' (toes), 'tree-n', &c.

A few nouns were later assimilated to the -en ending; as 'brethren', 'children', 'kine'.

'Brethren'. The plural of 'brothor' was first 'brothr-u' or 'brothr-a'; later 'brothr-e', 'brethr-e', 'brethr-e'; then 'brothren'.

Modor (mother), dohter (daughter), sweoster (sister), were declined in the same way in O. E., and had a partly similar history.

'Children'. O. E. 'cild' (child) had for plural 'cild-r-u', which was modified to 'childr-e' and 'child-er', 'child-ren'.

and 'child-er-n'.

Compare 'calvren' (from O. E. cealf, 'calf'), 'eyren' (from O. E. æg, 'egg'), and 'lambren' (from O. E. lamb), all long obsolete.

'Kine'. O. E. 'cú' (cow) formed its plural, as we have seen, 'cy', or 'ky'; later, it took on '-en', and became 'kin', 'ken', 'kine', a double plural. 'Cows' is now the regular and common usage.

4. Some Nouns have the same form in both numbers; as 'deer', sheep', 'sw'ne', 'grouse', 'teal', 'mackerel', 'trout', 'salmon', 'heathen', 'cannon'.

This corresponds to a class of neuter nouns that had lost their (nominative) plural inflexion in the oldest English: O. E. deor (sing. and plur.), 'deer'; sceap (sing. and plur.), 'sheep'; swin (sing. and plur.), 'swine'; &c.

5. Foreign Words.—Many words borrowed from other languages retain their original plurals: 'focus, foci'; 'genus, genera'; 'beau, beaux'; 'cherub, cherubim.'

The following are a few of the most usual:-

Appendices Radices Cortices  (No change.)  Messieurs Mesdames Banditti	
Banditti Irtuosi Beraph <i>im</i>	
1 1 3 7 j	Adices ortices  (No change.) essieurs esdames anditti irtuosi

'Messieurs' is French; 'mes sieurs' being literally 'my sirs'. We have not adopted the corresponding singular 'monsieur' (mon sieur). So 'madam' is our form of 'madame'

(ma dame, 'my lady'); and 'mesdames' (mes dames) is the unmodified French plural. When a foreign word passes into common use, the tendency is to adopt the English plural. Thus we have 'genius-es', 'crocus-es' 'vivariums', 'memorandums', 'encomiums', 'dogmas', 'formulas', 'cherubs', 'seraphs', 'bandits'. Some foreign words have currency chiefly in the plural; as 'errata', 'arcana', 'dilettanti', 'antipodes'.

# 6. Some Nouns have two plurals, with separate meanings.

Brother Cloth Cloths (kinds or pieces of cloth); clothes (garments).

Die Cloths (kinds or pieces of cloth); clothes (garments).

Dies (stamps for coining); dice (for gaming).

Geniuses (men of original power); genii (spirits).

Indexes (to a book); indices (signs in Algebra).

Peus (separate seeds); pease (collective).

Pennies (separate coins); pence (collective; as 'fourpence').

Shot (the number of balls); shots (the number of times fired).

'Pea' is a modern formation from 'pease' (O. E. pisa, pese), which was singular. The old plural pesen (and peses) dropt its distinctive ending, and thus plural and singular became the same in form: the -s end-sound gradually restricted the common form to the plural use, and 'pea' came to be used as singular. From 'pea', the plural 'peas' is a regular and modern formation.

'Penny 'is O. E. pening or penig; pl. penigas, later pennyes, pens. pence.

The restriction of the separate forms to the different meanings is quite modern.

7. The Plurals of a few Nouns seem to differ in meaning from the Singulars: 'compass, compasses'; 'corn, corns'; 'iron, irons'; 'salt, salts'; 'content, contents'; 'domino, dominoes;' 'good, goods'; 'vesper, vespers'.

Some nouns seem to have two meanings in the singular, only one of which, and this the least common, corresponds to the plural. 'Corn', 'iron', &c., being names of materials, do not take a plural form; 'corns', 'irons', &c. are the plurals of new singulars with different meanings (See below, § 12; and p. 20), 'a corn', 'an iron', &c. 'Compass', 'content', 'good', and other abstract nouns, similarly give rise to new singulars (or might do so), and hence 'compasses', 'contents', &c. (See below, § 13; and page 22, § 13). Other words, such as

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'A gallows' (Goldsmith); 'the gallows itself' (Cooper).
'Means', according to most grammarians, is to be used in the singular when the signification is singular, and in the plural when the signification is plural. We may say, accordingly, 'this means', or 'these means', as the case requires. The singular form 'mean' is to be found in the present century (Sir W. Hamilton, Carlyle, &c.).

'News' in old English was commonly plural: 'these are news indeed '(Shak.); but now it is uniformly singular: 'ill news runs apace'. The singular form 'new' never existed.

'Small-pox', is a plural disguised by a new spelling: 'pox' is for 'pocks'. As the name of a disease, 'small-pox' is singular.

'Tidings' is plural. It is commonly used by Shakespeare as a plural noun, but in some instances he makes it singular: 'that tidings came'; 'a tidings' (Antony and Cleopatra).

Names of sciences, or of parts of sciences, often appear in plural form, being literal translations of the classical terms: 'acoustics', 'economics', 'mathematics', 'optics', 'physics', 'politics', 'statics', &c. Yet as naming collective is es of doctrine, they take a singular verb: 'optics is the science of light'. light'. Sometimes the singular form is found: 'logic' (and, in the Irish universities, 'logics'), 'metaphysic' and 'metaphysics', &c.

The singular forms 'amend', 'gallow', 'mean', 'nuptial', 'pain', 'tiding', 'thank', 'wage', occur in old English.

10. Singular forms treated as Plural:— 'alms', 'eaves', 'riches'.

'Alms'. O. E. ælmesse, almesse, almes; plur. ælmessan, elmessen, almesses. 'None was heard to ask an alms' (Macaulay). 'The alms they receive are—' shows the transition.

'Eaves'. O. E. yfes, efese, eves: plur. efesen (esen), eveses. 'Riches'. O. E. richesse (from French); plur. 'richesses'. 'In one hour is so great riches come to naught (Rev.). 'Riches profit not' is an example of the changed use. 'Riches in a cultured community are the strangest of things. . They are the readiest of possibilities ' (Carlyle).

'Summons' (O. Fr. semonse, O. E. somons), another apparent plural, is really singular, and is used as such; pl. 'summouses',

regularly.

II. Proper Nouns sometimes apply to one person, and are therefore Singular, and sometimes to several persons, and then admit of the Plural: 'The Browns have gone to the country'.

12. Names of Materials have no Plural; as 'gold', 'air', 'butter'.

But when there are different qualities, or separate portions, of the material, the noun becomes a class noun, and the plural is regularly used; as 'sugars', 'wines', 'clays', 'airs', 'teas', 'somps'. 'Sands' is used because the material is made up of distinct particles, which we can therefore suppose to be numbered. (See further p. 20).

13. Abstract Nouns have no Plural: as 'wisdom', 'pride', 'baseness', 'might', 'whiteness', 'elasticity', 'opacity'.

Occasionally these nouns seem to be in the plural. The plurals, however, are then class nouns, and signify, not the abstract quality, but particular actions or particular varieties of the quality; as 'liberties', 'virtues', 'vices', 'negligencies', 'lengths', 'forces'.

Or they may really signify something in the concrete; as transparencies. (See further § 7, above; and p. 22, § 13).

- 14. Nouns of multitude, although singular in form, have a plural meaning and construction: 'vermin', 'cattle', 'crowd', 'people', 'folk', 'infantry', 'tenantry', 'Englishry', 'poultry', 'fowl', 'fish'.
- 15. The omission of the Indefinite Article with Nouns that take that Article before them, is a sign of the Plural.

The proper declension of a noun is: (singular) 'a house, (plural) houses'; 'a man, men'; 'a sheep, sheep'.

16. Plural Inflexion disused.—With a numeral, the sign of the Plural is often dispensed with: 'five pound', 'ten sail', 'two brace of birds', 'four pair', 'two dozen', 'a three-foot rule', 'twenty year', 'forty head of cattle', 'a thousand horse', 'two million stand of arms', 'thirty change of garments'.

This omission probably originated in connexion with the one-syllable flexionless plurals (nominative) already mentioned (§ 4); such as 'deer', 'head', 'horse', 'pound', 'slicep', 'year', &c. It has evidently been much favoured by the circumstance that the numeral indicates the fact of plurality,

and therefore renders the plural inflexion unnecessary. Indeed the means of making known plurality are superabundant, as we may see from such an instance as the following: 'Four children were at their lessons, the good creatures'. Here the plurality is expressed by six different marks: 1st, the numeral; 2nd, the plural inflexion, 'children'; 3rd, the verb 'were'; 4th, 'their'; 5th, the plural of the word in apposition, 'creatures'; 6th, the omission of the article.

There are certain further cases where the plural inflexion is idiomatically dropt. 'He has no objections (objection)'; 'I was in his favours (favour)'; 'they were dressed in blacks (black)'. In the 16th and 17th centuries, however, an attribute common to several persons was often put in the plural. Shakespeare has— 'I will requite your *loves*'; 'break not your *sleeps* for that'; 'then bring me to their *sights*', &c. Bacon and Shakespeare have 'blacks'. Milton has 'take our *leaves*' ( = departure).

17. Strictly speaking, the Plural form declares only that there are more than one of the thing named; but we are able often to infer besides something as to the extent of the number.

'We are to have *friends* this evening', means some or a few. 'He keeps *horses*', implies the same. 'He sells *books*', refers to the nature of his occupation. 'Men say' is men in general; all that have an opportunity of speaking on the subject. 'Sheep are meek animals'; the whole race of sheep: 'men are mortal'; all men. Thus the context may indicate sufficiently that the number spoken of is a few, a great number, or the whole of the thing spoken of.

18. The Plural of Compound Nouns is generally formed by inflecting the principal Noun; as 'sons-in-law', 'goings-out', 'maids-of-honour', 'maidservants', 'man-stealers'.

Where the words are so closely allied that the meaning is incomplete till the whole is known, the 's' is added at the end: as 'pailfuls', the 'three per cents', 'forget-me-nots'.

We may say either 'the Misses Brown', or 'the Miss Browns', or even 'the Misses Browns'. 'The Misses Brown' has a collective effect; 'the Miss Browns' rather implies separate action. But in commercial life we say 'the Messrs Brown'. A few titles composed of two nouns in apposition have both nouns inflected after the manner of the French: 'Knights

nouns inflected after the manner of the French: 'Knights Templars', 'lords-justices', &c.

#### CASE.

I. Case is an inflexion of the Noun (or of the Pronoun), showing its relation to other words; as 'the master's voice', where the addition of -s to 'master' shows that 'voice' is the property of 'master'.

In many languages those inflexions are more numerous. Besides the relation expressed above, called the possessive or genitive relation, there are several others in the oldest English, as well as in Greek, Latin, &c., denominated dative, ablative, &c. In modern English, prepositions serve the purpose served in those languages by the various case-endings: 'patri' is 'to a father', 'patre' is 'by a father'. We can also substitute for the possessive inflexion in our own language the preposition 'of'; 'the voice of the master'.

2. There are said to be three cases in modern English,—Nominative, Possessive, and Objective; but in nouns the Possessive is the only case where inflexion occurs. *Nominative*, 'man'; possessive, 'man's'; objective, 'man'.

In the oldest English, nouns had six (or at least four) cases. With the exception of the Genitive or Possessive, hardly a trace of these remains in the language as used now. The Pronouns have preserved a few more remnants of their old case-endings.

Except for the pronouns, the distinction of nominative and objective would not be kept up, as the form of the noun can never show whether it is nominative or objective. For nouns, these names have a meaning only in construction with verbs; the one corresponding to the subject (the nominative), the other to the object of the sentence.

The Dative case remains, without inflexion, in some constructions: 'give the boy a penny', 'send the Captain help', 'woe worth the day', &c. The Instrumental or Ablative case, which in nouns had the same form as the Dative, no longer shows any inflexion.

3. The Possessive is formed in the Singular by adding to the Noun the letter 's' preceded by an apostrophe: 'John, John's'.

In the Plural no addition is made, except the apostrophe: 'fathers, fathers'. But if the Plural does not end in s, the general rule for the Singular is then applied: 'the children's bread'.

The reason for not adding 's' to the regular plurals is the difficulty of pronunciation: 'fathers, fathers's'.

In the oldest English, the genitive of masculine and neuter nouns was most commonly formed in -es: 'smith, smithes'; 'dæg (day), dæges'; 'scip (ship,, scipes'. Chaucer has 'cristes gospel', 'beddes (bed's) heed (head)'; much later, the -es ceased to be pronounced as a separate syllable, and the 'e' dropt out in writing, its absence being signified by the apostrophe ('). Dr. Morris thinks that "(') was at first probably used to distinguish the genitive from the plural suffix," and that "its use may have been established from a false theory of the origin of the genitive case, which was thoroughly believed in from Ben. Jonson's to Addison's time"—that -s was a contraction of 'his', whence such expressions as 'the prince his (for prince's) house'. This substitution of his for -es dates from the 13th century. The full form -es yet exists in 'Wedn-es-day' (Woden-es-dæg).

In the oldest English, the feminine and the plural genitives were formed by other endings; but by the 13th century these

had begun to be dropt and -es to take their place.

The omission of the vowel, and the consequent sounding of the 's' in the same syllable as the letter preceding, leads to varieties of pronunciation, such as those described for the formation of plurals; the 's' being sometimes sounded sharp, as 'life's', and sometimes flat: 'God's', 'Jacob's'. (See *Number*.)

4. The 's' is omitted in the Singular when too many hissing sounds would come together: 'Socrates' wife', 'for conscience' sake', 'for goodness' sake', 'for Jesus' sake'.

We say 'St. James's and St. Giles's', 'Moses's', 'Douglas's', 'Burns's'. The general rule is adhered to as much as possible. When the word consists of more than two syllables, the 's' is dropt, as 'Euripides' dramas'. In poetry it is frequently omitted: Bacchus', Æneas', Epirus', Hellas'.

"In O. E., fifteenth century, if the noun ended in a sibilant

"In O. E., fifteenth century, if the noun ended in a sibilant or was followed by a word beginning with a sibilant, the possessive sign was dropt; as 'a goose egg', 'the river side'."

(Morris).

5. In Compound Nouns the suffix is attached to the last word; as 'heir-at-law's', 'the queen of England's'.

Even when there are two sep rate names, the s is added only to the last, as, 'Robertson and Reid's office'; 'John, William, and Mary's uncle'.

In older English, down to the 16th century, the usual construction is seen in such examples as 'Sæberhtes death east seaxna cyninges' (Bcd. ii, 5, quoted by Morris), = 'Sæberht's death, the East Saxons' king's' = 'Sæberht, the East Saxons' king's death' or 'the death of Sæberht the king of the East Saxons'; 'for the Lordës love of heaven' (Piers the Plowman) = 'the Lord of heaven's love'; 'his brother's death the Duke of Clarence' (Sir T. More); 'for King Henry's sake the sixth' (More). Byron writes 'for the Queen's sake, his sister'. The separation of the possessive from a modifying adjective clause is very common. In this case the clause would be much too long to intervene before the noun; but the best plan is to substitute for the possessive, and allow the antecedent to come down close to the relative. 'This way will direct you to a gentleman's house that hath skill to take off these burdens' (Bunyan): say 'to the house of a gentleman that hath skill, &c'.

6. The Possessive Inflexion is principally limited to persons, animals, and personified objects. We may say 'John's occupation', 'the king's crown', 'the lion's mane', 'the mountain's brow'; but not 'the house's roof' (for 'the roof of the house'), 'the street's width', 'the book's price'.

Thus it is only a select number of nouns that admit of the inflexion: for the great mass we must use the preposition of a This very much diminishes the importance of the only case-inflexion that the language retains, rendering it an exception rather than the rule. The examples of its use may be classified as follows:—

- 1. Proper names of persons: 'Peter's pence', 'John's farm'. For these the possessive inflexion is preferred, although it is not exclusively employed; 'David's psalms' (the psalms of David); 'Plato's philosophy' (the philosophy of Plato).
- 2. Class designations of persons: as 'judge', 'farmer', 'soldier'. 'The hero's harp', 'the lover's lute', 'the enemy's camp'.

4 And Zion's daughters pour'd their lays With priest's and warrior's voice between.

- 3. Animals: 'the cat's mew', 'the eagle's flight', 'the ant's industry', 'the elephant's tusk'. The other form is equally common.
- 4 Dignified objects that we are accustomed to hear personified: 'the sun's rays', 'the moon's rising', 'the earth's surface', 'the torrent's rage', 'the lightning's flash', 'the volcano's heavings', 'the morning's ray', a 'man-of-wars rigging', 'fortune's smile', 'melancholy's child', 'the last trumpet's awful voice', 'and love's and friendship's finely pointed dart', 'the clamour of the Church's being in danger', 'time's follower', 'nature's voice', 'eternity's stillness', 'perdition's dream'.

The powers of the human mind are sometimes personified; whence we have 'reason's voice', 'passion's lure', 'for conscience' sake', 'imagination's range', 'fancy's flight'.

The collective interests of humanity may be treated in the same way: 'history's business', 'society's well-being', 'the law's delay'.

Poets naturally carry the usage farther than prose writers:—
'Secking the bubble reputation at the cannon's mouth' (Shak.).
'He sat him down at a pillar's base' (Byron). There are instances in ordinary speech, where the possessive is used without personification, but they are rare; as 'for appearances' sake', 'for acquaintance's sake'; and even in these the other form, with the preposition, is more usual. In old English the inflexion was quite common. There are certain phrases where a period of time is governed in the possessive by the action or state that the time relates to: 'a day's leave', 'a month's holiday', 'a few hours' intercourse', 'the Thirty-years' war'.

But we are not now permitted to make indiscriminate use of this inflexion; such expressions as 'what is the checse's weight?' 'who was gunpowder's inventor?' 'copper's value', 'heat's laws', would be a violation of all usage.

7. It would be correct to call the Possessive in 's' the inflexion of personal possession, or attribute.

Sentient beings may have their possessions, properties, or attributes expressed by being inflected in this manner: 'the merchant's wealth', 'the ambassador's credentials', 'the tiger's ferocity'. When an inanimate object so far impresses the mind that we think of it as having sense and will, we may bestow upon it the personal ending 's', just as we may ascribe

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I, in the oldest English, ic, has now lost the final guttural. A middle form ich, seen in icham (Ich am, I am), ichabbe (Ich habbe, I have), ichille (Ich wille, I will), &c., still exists in dialects in the south of England. Compare Germ. ich, Dan. jeg, Gr. and Lat. ego.

Ye, you. Down till the 16th century, 'ye' (O. E. ge) was nominative, and 'you' (O. E. eow) dative and accusative.

Mine, thine, (O. E. min, thin,: the final e simply shows that the i is long) are the oldest forms. My, thy, drop the inflexional ending -n; a process dating from the 12th century.

Our, your (O. E. user, ure; eower) retain the genitive ending -r. Ours, yours, are double forms, adding to 'our', 'your', a second genitive ending -s; they "made their first appearance in the Northern dialects of the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries, and are due to Scandinavian influence". (Morris).

Me, thee, us, you, as datives, correspond to the O. E. datives, me, the, us, eow. They still appear as datives in certain constructions. 'Meseems', 'methinks' = '(it) seems, thinks (= appears) to me'. 'Woe worth him' = 'woe worth' (= be) to him'. 'Show me that.' 'You had better go' was freely used in the 16th century for 'you were better go': that is, '(it) were (= would be, subj.) better for you (to) go'. In 'he steps me to a trencher', 'the skilful shepherd peeled me certain wands', and such like, 'me' seems to appropriate the narrative of the action to the speaker, and to be equivalent to 'mark me', 'I tell you' (Abbott).

As objectives, the same forms correspond to the O. E. accusatives me (mec, archaic: compare Germ. mich), the (thec), us (usic), eow (eowic).

3. The Demonstratives, or Pronouns of the third person, are declined as follows:—

Nominative. Possessive. Dative. Objective.

He His Him Him.

She Her, Hers Her Her.

It Its It It.

Their, Theirs Them Them

He, his. 'His' is the regular genitive of an original (supposed) form hi.

Him, now both dative and objective, was only dative in O. E. The O. E. accusative was hine, which was gradually supplanted

by the dative form him in the 13th and 14th centuries. Hi-m shows dative ending -m, attached to the root hi-.

She. The O. E. heo died out in the 14th century, having been slowly superseded during two centuries by 'she', a new application of the feminine definite article (O. E. seo, sio; scæ,

sco; sche).

Her, hers. 'Her' (O. E. hire, here) preserves the genitive ending -re. 'Hers' is a double genitive, like 'ours', 'yours' (§ 2). The dative 'her' also preserves the dative ending of the O. E. forms hire, here. The objective 'her' is the dative form re-applied, an early substitution for the O. E. acc. hi, heo.

It, nom. and obj., has dropt the h of the O. E. form hit. 'Hit' is the regular neuter of 'he (hi)', by addition of the neuter ending -t: compare 'that', 'what', Lat. 'id', 'quod', &c. 'It', dative, has taken the place of O. E. him, the regular inflexion.

Its stands for O. E. his. The form was unknown before the sixteenth century, occurring but rarely in Shakespeare, and not at all in the translation of the Bible; the meaning being given by 'his' (the regular O. E. form) and 'thereof'. The old possessive, his, stood for both masculine and neuter, creating an obstacle to the personifying power of the word. Milton seems to have felt this, and never uses the form 'his' in the neuter sense, while he evades the occasions of resorting to 'its'. Dryden adopted the new form fully.

From the 14th to the 17th century hit or it was sometimes used in place of his (neut.) or its; especially in reference to children, or depreciatingly. 'That which groweth of it own accord '(Levit. xxv. 5). 'The innocent milk in it most innocent mouth' (Winter's Tale, iii. 2).

From the 14th to the 16th century, 'the own' was sometimes used in place of 'his (its) own'. 'Gold, which of the own nature is a thing so unprofitable, &c.' (Sir T. More's Utopia, ii.: Robinson's transl., 1556).

There is a curious contrast between the possessive inflexion of nouns and this possessive. The nouns so inflected are almost exclusively names of persons, while 'it' is the pronoun of things. We cannot say 'the room's height', but we can say 'its height'.

The form 'of it' is sometimes to be preferred. When the noun is emphatic, the preposition is preferable: thus, 'the weight of it', 'the value of it', better enables us to throw the emphasis on the noun, than if we were to say 'its weight', 'its

value'.

They, the modern form of O. E. thá, the common nom. plur.

of the O. E. definite article, began to drive out the regular O. E. plural, hi (later hig, heo) in the 13th century.

Their, theirs. 'Their', the modern form of the O. E. thára, the common genitive plural of the O. E. def. art., similarly usurped the place of the regular O. E. hira, heora; hire, heore. The gen. ending is preserved. 'Theirs' is a double genitive, like 'ours', 'yours', 'hers' (§ 2).

Them is the dat. pl. of the def. art. thæm, thám, replacing the regular O. E. him (later have have).

the regular O. E. him (later heom, hem). The obj. 'them' is a new application of the dat. form, in place of the O. E. acc. hi (hig, heo). But for this transference of the dat. form, we should have expected 'they' for obj. as well as nom., O. E. thá serving both purposes.

This and that have no case inflexion; they have a plural inflexion, these, those.

This was varied for gender in O. E.: thes (m.), thees (fem.), this (n.). The neuter form has been extended to all genders. The common O. E. plur. was thás; later these, these, thise, this.

That was originally the neuter of the def. art. : se, the (m.), seó (f.), thæt (n.). By the 13th century it was extended to all genders; and next century, it had full demonstrative force. The plur. those is O. E. thás, borrowed in the 14th century from 'this'. 'That' had previously kept its regular plur. tha, tho, the plur. of the definite article.

The Indefinite pronoun one, in the sense of 'one cannot be sure of that', is declined in the singular, but has no plural: 'one's legitimate expectations should be respected'.

'One as in 'the young ones', is declined like a noun: 'one,

'one's; plural, 'ones, ones'.

Other has poss. sing. 'other's'; plur. nom. 'others', poss. 'others'; like a noun. The O. E. plur. was 'othere'; hence 'other' was often used as plur. between the dropping of the old inflexion and the adding of the regular modern inflexion -s. 'Another' is simply 'an other'.
'None', 'any', 'each', 'either', 'neither', &c., take the possessive inflexion: 'none's', &c.

### 4. The Reflexive Pronouns are marked by the word self.

SINGULAR.

1st person: Myself, (ourself)
2nd person: Thyself, yourself ( Himself. herself. itself. )

PLURAL. Ourselves Yourselves Themselves

'Self' adds emphasis. It was originally an adjective (=same), joined to nouns and pronouns, and inflected regularly. Nom. ic self(a), gen. min selfes, dat. me selfum, acc. me selfne. Then the dative of the pronoun was sometimes inserted between the two: 'ic me self (or silf)', 'thu the silf', 'he him silf';

'we us silfe', 'ge eow silfe', 'hi him silfe'.
The dative of the Personal Reflexives was turned into genitive in the 13th century, 'self' having come to be regarded as a noun. Thus 'I me self' became 'I mi (my) self'; 'thu the self' became 'thu thi (thy) self'; and so 'ourself, yourself'. These last were plurals, the -e and -en inflexions being dropt; but they necessarily conformed to the usage of nouns in '-elf', and became 'ourselves', 'yourselves' as plurals, and 'ourself', 'yourself' as singulars.

The dative of the demonstratives remains, except in two cases. 'Oneself' is frequently written 'one's self'. And 'his own self', 'their precious selves', &c., show that with a qualifying word before 'self' (which is then regarded as a noun), the poss. forms, 'his', 'their', &c., may be used. 'Herself', 'in contain the dative forms 'her', 'it', not the possessive forms

'her', 'its'.

### 5. The Interrogative Pronouns that undergo declension are who and what.

Who (O.E. hwd, masc. and fem.); poss. whose (O. E. hwas); dative and objective, whom (O.E. dat. hwam, hwam), The -e of 'whose' is not inflexional; it merely indicates that the o is long: the -s is a true genitive ending. The O. E. acc. hwone gave way to the dat. form in the 13th century: the -m of 'whom' preserves the old dative ending.

'Who' may also be regarded as a modern objective form, side by side with 'whom'. For many good writers and speakers say 'who are you talking of'? 'who does the garden belong to?' 'who is this for?' 'who from?' &c.

What (O. E. hwæt, neut.: compare § 3, 'it'); poss. whose

(O. E. hwæs); dat. and obj. what (O. E. acc. hwæt; the O. E.

dat. was hwæm, hwam).

Which is often the nominative corresponding in meaning to 'whose'; but 'whose' never was a genitive from 'which', historically.

### 6. The Relative Pronouns have only two inflected forms: whose and whom.

Who (masc. and fem.; sometimes neut.) can hardly be regarded as a relative till the 16th century. The poss. whose and the obj. whom had been relatives in the 12th century.

What is etymologically the neuter of 'who', but practically it is now equivalent to 'that which'. Its function as neuter relative, as well as its poss. 'whose', long ago went over to 'which' and 'that'.

Which is now the neuter practically corresponding to 'who', but till recently it was often used as masc. or fem. also. It bor-

rowed from 'who' and 'what' the poss. 'whose'.

That is used for all genders and both numbers. It is indeclinable; but it supplies the want of a poss. by borrowing 'whose' from 'who' and 'what'. 'That' became clearly relative in the 12th century. Chaucer indicates distinctions of gender and case by associating a demonstrative with it: 'that he' = 'who', or 'that' (nom.); 'that his' = 'whose'; 'that him' = 'whom' or 'that' (obj.).

Certain Compound Relatives take the possessive inflexion. 'I would not hurt a hair of her head, whose ever daughter she may be' (Goldsmith, Good-Natured Man, v.) 'IVhose tongue soe'er speaks false not truly speaks' (Shak., King John, iv. 3).

## Substitutes for Relative Inflexions.

When we come to discriminate the two relatives—the co-ordinating and the restrictive—we find the modes of expressing the case-meanings of them in practice to be somewhat complicated.

To begin with who. When we have occasion to express the idea of strict personal possession, we may say whose, and also of whom: 'God, whose offspring we are', 'of whom we are the offspring'. Of course when the meaning is not personal possession, but reference, 'of whom' is used, or 'whom—of'; 'he encountered the keeper, of whom he knew nothing', 'whom

he knew nothing of'.

Which. When we have to use a possessive form of the neuter relative of co-ordination, we have a choice between of which, whereof, and whose. The preferable form is 'of which', or 'which—of'; the other forms are better suited to the restrictive relative: 'the alkaline bases, of which the peculiarity is'; 'the doctrines in question, of which this is the sum', 'which this is the sum of'. The forms 'whose', 'whereof', are also admitted; but perspicuity is gained by reserving them for the other relative. 'They agreed in regarding the national voice, whose (co-ordinating) independence they maintained, as expressed by the representatives of the people in parliament.'

That. No inflexion is provided for the relative of restriction. To express the meaning corresponding to the possessive inflexion, these are the forms: that of, whereof, and whose.

The first is unmistakable, and to be preferred. The others serve for the co-ordinating relatives; but they have, to the ear familiar with idiomatic English, still more the restrictive effect: 'the person that I gave you the name of'—'the person whose name I gave you'; 'the tribunal of public opinion is one whose decisions it is not easy to despise'—'one that it is not easy to despise the decisions of'; 'I could a tale unfold whose lightest word', &c., could not be conveniently changed into 'that—of'.

The form 'whereof' is only one of a class of compounds—'wherein', 'whereto', &c.—that possess great convenience in expressing the prepositional constructions of the relative. They correspond by preference, but not exclusively, to the restrictive relative 'that'. 'The point wherein I erred', 'the point that I erred in (restrictive). 'And be not drunk with wine, wherein is excess' (co-ordinating, 'in which').

Some grammarians would confine the use of 'whose' to persons, but the restriction has never been in force; there is nothing to

justify it.

7. Nouns after Plural Possessives. As regards the possessive inflexion generally, it is to be noted that an abstract noun following a plural possessive should not be made plural; as 'we have changed our mind', 'we would lay down our life'; 'men's reason should bid them regard their health'. The plural is not required in such an expression as 'let not your hearts be troubled'. (See Case of Nouns, end.)

Scotticism in the possessive case: 'To-morrow's morning', for 'to-morrow morning'; 'Sunday's morning'.

### INFLEXION OF ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives are inflected to signify differences of degree: 'great, greater, greatest'. This is called their Comparison.

In many languages adjectives are inflected to mark the gender of the nouns they are joined to; in modern English no difference is made on this account. Nor does the case or number of the noun affect the adjective in modern English. Our language has gained in simplicity and ease by discarding these adjective inflexions, and has lost only a certain power of varying the order of words. But in the oldest English, the Adjective was fully inflected for gender, number, and case; indeed, it had also.

a special declension when preceded by a demonstrative.

In the 14th century, the inflexional endings of the Adjective had dwindled down to -e, which often appears as a separate syllable, after a demonstrative, or before a plural noun. Dr. Morris quotes an excellent illustration from the opening lines of Chaucer's Prologue to the Canterlury Tales:—

> "Whan Zephirus eek with his swetë breethe Enspired hath in every holte and heethe The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne Hath in the Ram his halfe cours ironne, And smale fowles maken melodic."

In O. E., adjectives borrowed from Norman-French sometimes took -cs (or -s) in the plural: 'parties meridionales' (Maundeville), 'the best of all vertues, that cardinales ben called' (Langley), 'places delitables', 'capitalles lettres' (Chaucer)

In cases like 'motives', 'worthies', 'incapables', 'extremes', 'brilliants', 'contemporaries', 'greens', &c., the omission of the nouns throws the force of these upon the adjectives, which take the noun inflexion also, and thus become to all intents and purposes nouns.

2. There are said to be three degrees of Comparison; the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative.

The Positive is the Adjective in its simple or un-

inflected form: 'great', 'broad', 'high'.

The Comparative is formed by adding -er to the Positive: 'greater', 'broader', 'higher'.

The Superlative is formed by adding -est to the

Positive: 'greatest', broadest', 'highest'.

The comparative ending -er shows an -r replacing an earlier -s: compare Sanskrit -jans, -jas. The Superlative -est is formed by adding -t to the comparative suffix: compare Sansk. -jansta, -istha.

An old comparative ending -ter, -ther (Sansk. -tar-, Greek and Latin -ter-: from the root of Lat. trans, through, 'going

beyond or farther'), remains in a few examples: 'after,' 'other', 'whe-ther', 'either', 'neither', 'under'.

An old superlative ending -ma is seen in 'former' (O. E. for-ma, superlative of 'fore': which we have made a comparative by adding -er); and also in many words ending in -most:

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Another reason for preferring more and most is that -er and -est are native suffixes, and best suited to native words. Most words of three syllables and upwards are of classic origin, and their inflexion would produce hybrids. The old writers, however, were not bound by these considerations. We find, in Sidney, 'repiningest'; in Bacon, 'ancienter' and 'honourablest'; in Hooker, not only 'learnedest' (a Saxon word), but 'famousest', 'solemnest', 'virtuousest'; in Fuller, 'eloquenter', 'eminentest'. In our own day, Carlyle has many such examples. Any adjective may be compared by 'more' and 'most', if the ear is better satisfied with the combination of saved.

ear is better satisfied with the combination of sounds produced. 'It is most true'; 'a more worthy course'. 'Thus doing, you shall be most fair, most rich, most wise, most all; you shall dwell upon superlatives'. (Sidney).

- 5. Certain comparatives in -ior, derived from the Latin, as 'interior', 'exterior', 'superior', 'inferior', 'anterior', 'posterior', 'prior', 'ulterior', 'senior', 'junior', 'major', 'minor', are not proper and full English Comparatives. The ending -ior is cognate with the English ending; but they are not followed by 'they' is a service of the servi followed by 'than' in composition. We say 'senior to —', not 'senior than his brother'.
- 6. Irregular and Defective Comparison is exemplified in a few instances.

Good ) Better Best. Well \( \) Bad Worse Evil Ill Worst

Good, O. E. god, has neither comparative nor superlative.

Well here is the predicate adjective (as in 'Are you well?'); also uninflected. Better, Best (O. E. betera, bet(e)st), had lost their positive (bet or bat), even in the oldest English extant.

Bad came in about the 13th century. Chaucer sometimes uses 'badder'. Evil (O. E. yfel) and Ill (a cognate Scandinavian form) are not inflected. Worse (O. E. wyrsa) and worst (O. E. wyrrest, wyrst) are formed from a lost positive weer. The -s- in 'worse' is a relic of the oldest form of the -er ending: contrast the Danish 'vær-re', which has long appeared in Northern English (including Scotch) as 'warre', 'war' (worse).

Little Less Least. More Most.

Little (O. E. lytel) supplies from a different root (las, 'infirm') comp. less (O. E. læs-sa another relic of the -s ending), and superl. least (O. E. læs-t, i e. læs-est). Lesser, a double compar., is an admitted form: 'the greater light to rule the day, and the lesser light to rule the night' (Gen. i. 16); 'the lesser Asia', 'the lesser grey centres of the brain'. Littlest occurs once in Shak. (Ham. iii. 2.): 'the littlest doubts'. This, however, is in a special contrast where it is desirable to show the form 'little'.

Much (O. E. mic-el, later michel, muchel, moche) is from the root ma(g)h ('grow, become great'). More (O. E. mara = mah - ra) is used as the comp. of both 'much' and 'many'. Mo, moe, a shortened form, is common in the Elizabethan age, and is found in Scotch as  $m\omega$  (the comp. of 'many'). Most is O. E.  $m\omega st$  (= mah-st). Many (O. E. maneg) "contains the root mang, a nasalized form of mag (mah)". (Morris).

> Elder ) Eldest. }
> Older ) Oldest. } Old

Old, O. E. eald; elder, O. E. yldra, eldra; eldest, O. E. yldest, eldest. The modification of the vowel in 'yld-' eld-' is due to the influence of a lost -i- preceding the endings. (Compare 'man, men', &c.: p. 126, § 3). So 'lang', comp. 'lengra', superl 'lengest'; 'strang, strengra, strengest'; 'geong' (young) 'gyngra', 'gyngest', &c.

Older oldest, formed directly from 'old', are now the common inflexions. The general use of these has gradually confined 'elder', 'eldest', to living beings. 'Elder' has lost part of the comparative use; we say 'which is the elder?' but we have ceased to say 'he is elder than his brother'.

NighNigherNearNearerFarFarther Nighest, Next. Nearest. Farthest. Furthest. Furthermost. [Forth] Further

The first couple 'nigh', 'near', look regular. But the really regular form would be an apparent mixture: 'nigh, near, next'.

Nigh, O. E. \*neáh, neh, later neih, negh. Near, O. E. nýra, neárra was the regular compar. of neah; it began to be used as positive about the 12th century, though it was not quite disused as compar. till the 17th century. Next is O. E. nehst (= neah-st, neh-st). Thus nearer is etymologically a double compar., and nearest has really the modern superl. added to the old compar. form.

Far, O. E. feor, had O. E compar. fyrra, and superl. fyrrest. The later form of fyrra, ferre, took on the common ending (like nerre, nerrer, nearer) and became a double compar., ferrer. Farrer, farrest, remain in Scotch; but farther, farthest, the English forms, have admitted the from further,

'furthest', on a mistaken analogy.

The adv. 'forth' had no adjective cognate in O. E. Further (O. E. furthra), furthest, are regularly formed. The O. E. superl. was furth-m-est; whence 'furthermost'. 'Furthermore' is an adv. (used with the force of a conjunction).

Rathe	Rather	Rathest.]
[A, xr]	$\mathbf{Ere}$	Erst
Late	Latter )	Last.
Law	Later }	Latest.

Rathe (O. E. hræd), 'quick', 'early'; rather (O. E. hræthra); and rathest (O. E. hrathost)—died out as adjectives in the 17th century The adv. 'rather' (O. E. hrathor) remains, but in the metaphorical sense of 'by preference', 'preferably', which appeared as early as the 12th century.

'preferably', which appeared as early as the 12th century.

The O. E. adv. ær ('formerly', 'before') is radically connected with the adv. i ('ever', 'always'). It appears in 'ear-ly', for which ær, ere, is still used in Scotch: as, 'an ær crap' (an early crop), and, adverbially, 'to work late and ær'. Ere is O. E. ærra ('former'), and erst is O. E. ærest; but the adjective use of the words is now obsolete.

but the adjective use of the words is now obsolete.

Late (O. E. læt, 'slow', 'late'); latter (O. E. latra, later lattre); last (O. E. latost, latst: softened, like 'betst' into 'best', in the 12th century). Later, latest, are regular and

unmodified.

Outer & Outmost, outermost & Out, Utter \( \) Utmost, uttermost \( \) utemest). O.E. ut Midmost (O. E. medemest). Mid Upper \ Upmost, uppermost \ (O.E. yfemest, [Up, Over \int Overmost O.E. uf-(ymest). Higher Highest, Highermost High Lower Lowest, Lowermost Low Under Undermost [(Be)neath] Nether Nethermost (O.E. nithemest.)

'Fore' (adv. 'before') made in O. E. a superl. adj. for-ma, to which there was added later the compar. suffix, making former. The addition of the superl. suffix -est made a double superl., O. E. fyrmest, our foremost. First (O. E. fyr(re)st) is the regular superl. form.

Many other forms now obsolete are found in our old writers: 'hinderest', 'upperest', 'overest', &c. We have also some others in -most: 'eastmost', 'westmost', 'endmost', 'topmost', 'endmost', 'topmost', 'endmost', 'endmo

'sternmost', &c.

7. Double comparatives and superlatives are to be avoided; as 'more surer punishments', 'worser far', 'the most boldest', 'the most unkindest cut of all'.'

We have just seen not a few cases of double inflexion, chiefly however in circumstances where the common ending has been added to an older ending no longer familiar in the required sense: 'lesser', 'utm-ost', &c.

So when a word has of itself the force of a comparative or superlative it should not be compared; as 'the *chiefest* among ten thousand', 'the *extremest* verge', 'a *more perfect* way'. Such cases arise chiefly from the desire of exceptional emphasis.

8. Adjectives not compared.—Adjectives expressing meanings that do not admit of change of degree are not compared.

Such are the pronominal adjectives (this, that, his, their, &c.), the definite numeral adjectives (two, fourth, both, &c.), and many adjectives of quality.

The following are examples: 'Almighty', 'certain', 'chief', 'circular', 'continual', 'dead', 'empty', 'extreme', 'eternal', 'false', 'filial', 'fluid' 'full', 'golden', 'inexpiable', 'infallible', 'intolerable', 'infinite', 'living', 'paternal', 'perfect', 'perpetual', 'royal', 'supreme', 'universal', 'void'. Some are already words expressing the highest possible degree of the quality (Almighty). Others have no shades of meaning: a

thing must be either perpendicular or not, dead or not dead; there are no degrees. Figuratively, however, we ascribe degrees to some of these attributes. When we speak of an assertion as 'more or less certain', we do not mean that one assertion is 'certain' absolutely, and that another is more so; we mean that the other approaches 'nearer to being certain', neither of the two being absolutely and completely certain. So 'more or less full', 'fluid', &c. Milton's description of Satan's despair is hyperbolical: 'And in the lowest deep, a lower deep'.

9. Another mode of expressing the superlative degree is exemplified in 'King of kings', 'Lord of lords', 'bravest of the brave'.

To express comparison there is also the peculiar idiom seen in the examples, 'too evident to require proof'; 'too much a man of the world to be imposed upon'.

10. The Comparative is used when two things are compared; the Superlative, when more than two are compared.

'Of two such lessons, why forget The nobler and the manlier one?'

But the rule is not strictly adhered to. Writers and speakers continually use the superlative in comparing two things: 'the best of two', 'the least of two'. 'This court had been the most magnificent of the two' (Thackeray). Less frequently the comparative is used for the superlative: 'I read the whole of Tacitus, Juvenal, and Quintilian. The latter . . . is seldom sufficiently appreciated' (J. S. Mill). 'The former seemed the stranger sensation of the three' (Cooper). Like many other dual forms the comparative degree is superfluous; and perspicuity would be equally served by using the same form of comparison for two, as for more than two.

II. The Comparative and Superlative are sometimes used by way of eminence; as 'the most High', 'the ruder and more barren parts of the island'.

In expressing mere intensity, the adverbs 'more' and 'most' are made use of instead of 'very', 'greatly', &c. 'His argument was most (very) convincing.' There is in such cases no express comparison, and hence the name, the superlative of eminence.

### INFLEXION OF ADVERBS.

I. The only inflexion of Adverbs is Comparison. Some, from the nature of their meaning, cannot be compared, as 'now', 'then', 'there', 'never', 'secondly', 'infinitely'. When the signification admits of degree, they are compared in the same manner as Adjectives: 'soon, sooner, soonest'; 'often', 'oftener', 'oftenest'; 'pleasantly, more pleasantly, most pleasantly'.

Adverbs are usually longer than the corresponding adjectives, and therefore more rarely admit of comparison by -er and -est. Such cases as 'latelier', 'gentlier' (Tennyson), 'proudlier' (Carlyle), are exceptions, allowed by euphony. In the old writers, such terms were more common: 'wiselier', 'easilier', 'rightlier', 'hardliest', 'earliest', are instances, but not for imitation. Coleridge uses 'safeliest'.

2. A few Adverbs coincide with irregular Adjectives: 'well, better, best'; 'badly or ill, worse, worst'; 'much, more, most', &c.

## INFLEXION OF VERBS.

I. Relations to be expressed.—The Verb is the Part of Speech that makes an affirmation; and in making an affirmation we may have reference to such circumstances as time, conditionality or unconditionality, person, and number.

Methods exist in every language for expressing these numerous relations. In some languages, as the Greek, the verb itself is changed or inflected for nearly every variety of time, person, number, &c. In English the actual inflexions are few; but by means of auxiliary words we can express all the various circumstances of affirmation.

2. The commonly enumerated inflexions of the Verb are Voice, Mood, Tense, Person, Number.

3. With reference to Voice, Verbs are Active or Passive. Every Transitive Verb has an active form, or voice, and a passive form, or voice. 'Cæsar defeated Pompey' (active); 'Pompey was defeated by Cæsar' (passive).

Since the object of the transitive verb becomes the subject of the affirmation in the passive voice, where there is no object (as in intransitive verbs) there can be no change of voice. 'His ardour cooled' is intransitive, and admits no such variation as occurs in the sentence, 'he struck the ball', 'the ball was struck'.

The passive voice expresses the same fact as the active, but in a form that calls attention to the object of the action, rather than to the agent.

Indeed, the agent may be unknown, and therefore there would be a blank in the affirmation if we had not the passive form. 'The glass was broken', is a complete assertion, although we may not be able to name the agent, or consider it unimportant to do so.

The English has no real inflexion for the Passive Voice. The single word 'hight' ('is or was called'), O. E. hatte, heht, is a very doubtful example. We require to take in the help of another verb (§ 14). Where a passive inflexion exists in languages nearly allied to the English, it seems to have arisen from a mode of applying a reflexive pronoun. Old Norse at kalla, 'to call', at kallast (for at kallask, = at kalla-sik, 'to call-(one)self'), 'to be called'. Danish at kalde shows a still further worn passive, at kaldes, 'to be called'. So the Greek passive forms were at first adopted from the middle voice (reflexive). The Latin passive is most probably a reflexive formation: 'amor' ('I am loved') = amos = amo + se ('I love self'); 'amaris' ('thou art loved') = amas-i-s = amas + se ('thou lovest self'); 'amatur' ('he is loved') = amat-u-se = amat + se ('he loves self'), &c. Compare French se mêler, 'to be mingled', s'appeler, 'to be called', &c.

4. The Moods are the Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative, and Infinitive. Under the same head we may include the Participle and the Gerund.

Mood means the manner of the action.

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The term imperative is somewhat misleading, as the mood is employed in supplication as well as in command; and for the strongest forms of command it is insufficient. The legislature uses 'shall' to signify its commands; another form used in common life is 'must'.

5. The Infinitive, as 'to go', is not a mood in the same sense as the others. It is the form of the verb that contains neither affirmation nor command, but merely names the action in the manner of a noun: 'to reign is worth ambition', for 'the act of reigning'.

There is no time signified by the infinitive as there is by the other moods. The name 'infinitive' expresses the fact that it is not limited in those circumstances of time that limit the other

parts, which parts are called collectively the Finite verb.

The preposition 'to' is not essential to the infinitive, and is dropped after certain verbs. The O. E. infinitive was formed by a suffix -an; as 'bindan' ('to bind'), 'writan' ('to write'). It was partially inflected like a noun, taking a dative in -e after 'to' for the expression of purpose: 'to bindanne', or '-enne' 'to writanne' or '-enne' —our gerund. By the 13th century the infin. -an had become weakened to -en and -e, and sometimes the -e was silent; the dat. -anne, -enne had also fallen away to -ene, -en, -e; and 'to' not only remained with the dat. or gerund meaning, but was also transferred to the simple infinitive. The two forms thus became identical, and 'to' now appears in the infin., whether it be nom. or obj. or dat.

The form 'binding,' 'going', is also an infinitive of the verb.

This form in -ing fulfils the function of a noun in the same manner as the other: 'going (subj.) is sad', 'he dreads going' (obj.); 'binding (= to bind) themselves by these terms was imprudent'. This is the modern practical usage; and, in cases like the last, while we regard 'binding' as equivalent to a noun, being subject to 'was imprudent', we acknowledge its force as a verb by saving that 'themselves' is a biset to 'the same of the force as a verb by saying that 'themselves' is object to it.

Historically, the connexion between the old infin. in -en and the modern form in -ing is not quite satisfactorily established. In the 13th century, indeed, the participial termination -ende or -inde was occasionally used in place of the dat. infin. or gerund form; and in the 14th century both forms were sometimes turned into -ing. But presently this -ing infin. died out. Again, an infin. -ing appears for -en about the beginning of the 16th century; but it is in a different construction from the modern use of -ing. In the same century even the -en of past participles was interchanged with -ing. Some stress might justly be laid on the strong tendency to convert all similar endings into -ing; but most probably the -ing should be traced to the verbal noun in -ung (later -ing), the preposition 'of' having dropt away, leaving the verbal noun and the following noun or pronoun in close proximity. According to this view, the real explanation of the above example is: binding (verbal noun); [of prep. omitted]; themselves (governed, not by 'binding', but by 'of'). But, admitting this to be the historical origin of the -ing form in such constructions, the practical usage has broken quite away from it.

6. The Participle affords a peculiar and convenient means of joining a subordinate fact to a principal affirmation.

The name 'Participle' was given because of the supposed participation, or sharing, in the functions of the verb, the

adjective, and the noun.

Speaking correctly, the participle is neither an adjective nor a noun. Adjectives are derived from participles, and verbal nouns occur with the form of the participle in 'ing', but derived in reality from other sources. The participle coincides with the verb in having a subject and (if transitive) an object, and in expressing some varieties of the action; but it has no power of independent affirmation. In construction it is subsidiary to a verb in some of the finite moods (indicative, &c.), and derives its affirmative force from the verb thus coupled. 'Ascending the mountain, we had a wide prospect.' This is a convenient and elegant abbreviation for 'we ascended the mountain, and had &c.' 'Beaten at one point, we made for another '= 'we were beaten, and made—'. 'I saw him crossing the street': 'I saw him, and when I saw him, he was crossing the street'.

The Participle has two principal meanings, and three forms.

The present, imperfect, incomplete participle expresses an action as doing, and not yet finished; and the form is in -ing (O.E. -end, -ende, -inde): 'beating', 'going', 'calling'.

The past or complete participle expresses an action as done and finished; and the forms are -n and -d: 'beaten', 'gone', 'called'.

In transitive verbs the participle in -ing has also an active signification, as 'beating', 'calling'; and those in -n and -d have a passive signification, as 'beaten', 'called', and form the basis of our passive voice. In intransitive verbs, the only difference of meaning is that of incomplete and complete: 'going', 'gone'; 'coming', 'come' (O. E. 'cumen, comen').

Both the present and the past participles may often be regarded as indefinite, the time of the action varying according

to the tense of the verb of the principal clause.

The new form -ing came in during the 12th century. The older forms gave way gradually; the Northern -and being used

down till about the beginning of the 17th century.

The ending -n (or en, -e- being merely a connecting or 'binding' letter) belongs to the verbs called strong or old. It has fallen off from many of them (§ 57, &c.). It is the same as the -en formative of adjectives ('golden', 'wooden'), denoting possession of the properties implied in the root; that is, it expresses the action of the verb as communicated to the subject that the participle is joined to.

The ending -d (or -ed, -e- being merely connective) belongs to the verbs called weak or new. It is sometimes modified to  $-t \le 62$ , &c.). It is cognate with Goth. -das, Lat. tus (\_tos), Gr. -tos; and has the same meaning as -n. It also appears similarly in a

vast number of adjectives.

In the absence of any other prefix, ge- was generally prefixed to the past participle (and often to other parts of the verb) in O.E. This ge- was later modified to y-, i-: 'ybroken', 'ygone', 'imade', 'ironne' (run).

In many languages (including Old English), the participle is inflected to agree with the subject in gender, number, and case, which gives it the appearance of an adjective. But it is still essentially a verb with the limitations above stated.

The phrase, 'making an unopposed landing' contains participle ('making'), adjective ('unopposed'), and noun ('landing'), all with participial form. So, 'a person passing' (part.), 'a passing thought' (adjective), 'the passing of the Douro' (noun). 'After satisfying the church' (part. or infin.) 'a satisfying portion' (adj.), 'a tempest dropping fire' (part.); 'now in the arithment important of picht' (adj.)

is the witching time of night' (adj).

The participle is known by its governing a noun like a verb, which neither an adjective nor a noun can do. But a participial phrase (that is a participle with its government) may be itself governed by a preposition: 'on hearing the news', 'by following the straight course', 'after warming himself', &c. These are brief and elegant substitutes for a conjunction and a clause: 'when they heard the news', 'if you follow', 'after he had warmed'. The passive participle (the equivalent of a clause with a passive verb) is known by its reference to a subject: 'after being well warmed, we went our way'. These forms in -ing may also be regarded as infinitives.

"A participal phrase seems to have the farther peculiarity of being joined to a possessive: 'John's leaving the course', 'our meeting the

party', 'my admitting the fact', 'the king's dissolving parliament', are short expressions for 'the fact that John left', 'we met', 'the king dissolved', &c. Likewise a demonstrative adjective may be joined in the same way: 'the sending them the light of thy Holy Spirit'; 'that burning the capitol was a wanton outrage'.

These phrases may perhaps be best considered as infinitives governing

nouns.

- 7. The Gerund is not a separate form in modern English, but a peculiar application of the two infinitive forms, 'to write', and 'writing'.
- In O. E. (see § 5), the dative form of the Infinitive, 'to writanne' (or '-enne') was used to express purpose or intention. Now that the special inflexion is dropt, 'to write' and 'for writing', the infinite forms with appropriate prepositions, give the meaning intended, and are called gerunds: 'I come to write', 'I have work to do', 'the course to steer by', 'ready for sailing', 'sharpened for cutting'. It is useful to point out this signification of these forms, partly to facilitate translation into the classical languages, and partly to explain some idioms of our own language. 'A house to let', 'I have work to do', 'there is no more to say', are phrases where the verb is not in the common infinitive, but in the form of the gerund. 'He is the man to do it, or for doing it.' When the 'to' ceased in the 12th century to be a distinctive mark of the dat. infin. or gerund, 'for' was introduced to make the writer's intention clear. Hence the familiar form in 'what went ye out for to see?' 'they came for to show him the temple'.
- 8. Tense is the variation of the verb to express the time of an action, modified by the other circumstances of completeness and incompleteness above mentioned in connexion with the participle. 'I come' (present), 'I came' (past); 'I call' (pres.), 'I called' (past).

These are the only tenses made by inflexion; but by combination with other words, future time is also expressed,—'I shall come', 'he will come'. In O. E. the want of a future form was usually supplied by the present tense. (Compare § 49). These compound forms, and a great variety of modes of past, present, and future, are represented in the full scheme of the verb (§ 40).

Strong Verbs are such as form the past tense, by change of the root vowel: 'hold, held'; 'fall, fell'; 'drink, drank'; 'come, came'.

As in all the other Indo-European languages, so in English, even the *present* tense is a form considerably modified from the original root. The chief means of change in English have been vowel augmentation and the insertion of various formative suffixes before the personal endings: the Northern English 'gang' (Goth. gagga) is a case of reduplication (from ga, 'to go'), a common mode in the classical languages.

To form the past tense, English, like the other Indo-European languages, and particularly like the other Teutonic languages, had recourse to Reduplication. 'Did', O. E. dide, is a doubling of 'do'. The curious verb 'hight' (=' was called': in O. E. also ='is called) appears in Goth. haitan ('to call'), O.E. hatan; past, Goth. hai-hait, O. E. heht, het (as well as hatte). Goth. haldan ('to hold'), O. E. healdan; past, Goth. haihald, O. H. Germ. hialt (= heihalt), mod. Germ. hielt, O. E. heold, mod. E. 'held'. Compare Gr. τύπτω, pf. τέ-τυφα, παύω, pf. πέ-παυκα; Lat. pello, pf. pepüli; tendo (n euphonic), pf. te-tendi; tundo (n euphonic), tă-tădi; fugio, pf. fugi (= fu-fugi); tollo, pf. tăli (for te-tăli).

The strong verbs cannot all be traced clearly to their original reduplication; but judging from those that we can trace, we believe that the rest followed the same rule. They have also been called 'old' verbs, because they are the oldest in the

language.

Weak Verbs are such as form the past tense by adding -d to the present or simple verb: 'love, loved'; 'hear, heard'; 'plant, planted'; 'whip, whipped or whipt'; 'carry, carried'; 'lead, led'; 'build, builded or built'; 'buy, bought'.

The addition of -d is accompanied with various modifications in spelling, like those in the plural of nouns and the comparison of adjectives. 'Heard' shortens the vowel of 'hear'; 'planted' inserts a binding or connective -e-, otherwise it could not be pronounced; 'whipped' (final -p doubled after short accented vowel), and 'whipt' are both written, but in either case we must pronounce 'whipt'; 'carried' changes -y (final -y after a consonant) into -i, before the connecting -e- and the inflexional -d. 'Led' looks like a strong past; but this is a form stripped of its earlier ending: 'led-de', 'læd-de': the vowel is also shortened. 'Build', and some others ending in -d preceded by a liquid, modify the final -d into -t; a shorter mode than the regular formation. The change of vowel in such as 'bought' from 'buy' is due, not to reduplication (like the strong verbs), but to the influence of certain vowels in ancient forms of the words.

The -d of the past tense is a modification of the verb 'did': "I loved' being a short form for 'I love did'; 'I laid' for 'I lay-did'. This appears best in the Gothic forms, especially the plural ones, which are least corrupted or worn down. root lag ('lay') formed its past tense in Gothic thus:

#### SINGULAR. PLURAL. lag-i-d-a (= older lagi-ded-am). lag-i-des (= older lagi-ded-ta?) lag-i-ded-um. lag-i-ded-uth.

3. lag-i-d-a. lag-i-ded-un.

We have already noted that the -e- (Goth. and O.H.G. -i-), is simply a connecting link. In O.E. (as well as in Goth. and O.H.G.) some verbs took -o- as the binding letter. Goth. -ai-,

O.H.G. -é-, have no extant cognate form in English.

The weak verbs take their name from their inability to form a past tense without the aid of another verb, 'did': the strong verbs double themselves, and need no foreign help. They are called also new verbs, the formation being more recent than the other. They greatly outnumber the very small force of strong verbs; and hence the latter have been called irregular, being apparent exceptions to the modern rule of forming in -d. The overpowering influence of the commoner weak form has been gradually breaking down the older strong form.

9. Person and Number. There are certain distinctions of form according as the subject of the verb is the speaker, the person or persons spoken to, or the persons or things spoken about; that is, for the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd persons, singular and plural; as 'I write', 'thou writest', 'he writes,' &c.

The personal suffixes were originally pronominal elements joined on to the verb (after the tense formative). They have

almost disappeared from modern English.

The suffix of the first person singular, -m, remains in the word 'am' alone (O.E. eo-m). It was previously -mi (weakened from an earlier -ma) = 'I'. Compare Sanskrit as-mi, Gr. είμι (for ἐσ-μί), Lat. sum (for es-u-m), O.H.G. pim (mod. Germ. bin), O.E. (Northern) beom ('1 be'). In O.E. 'binde', &c., the -e- is merely the connecting letter, which has usurped the place of the real personal ending.

The suffix of the second person singular, -st, appears in the present and past indicative. The root twa, tva, ta (= 'thou') seems to have changed into -ti, and then into -si, which gives the ending -s, common in O.E., regular in Northern English ('thou bears', 'thou binds'). The -t form remains in 'ar-t', 'was-t', 'wer-t', 'shal-t', 'wil-t'. The past tense of strong verbs dropt -t of the 2nd person singular, and showed no ending but -e: 'thu bunde' ('thou boundest'), 'thu feolle' ('thou fellest'); but in the 14th century the weak ending -st was shared with them. The peculiarities of spelling when -st is added are the same as when -d of the past tense is added.

The suffix of the third person singular, -th, -s, is descended from the demonstrative root, ta ('he'), seen in 'the', 'that'. The modified form -ti became in the oldest English -th, -d, and -t, and even in the 10th century -s, which is now the ordinary form. It appears only in the present indic. The same peculiarities of spelling attend the addition of -s as of -st and -d.

The suffixes of the plural have all been dropt in modern English. The forms in O.E. and cognate languages have been traced back to these: (1) masi = ma + si (=ti, ta; twi, twa) = 'I + thou', or ma + sa = 'I + he', that is, 'we'; (2) tasi = ta + si = 'thou + thou', or ta + sa = 'thou + he', that is, 'you'; and (3) (a)nti = an + ti = 'he + he', that is, 'they'. (But this explanation of (a)nti is not universally accepted). There is no trace of the suffix of the first person plural in English. Goth. has 'siyu-m' ('we are'): compare Gr.  $i\sigma$ - $\mu$ e $\varphi$  (Doric i- $\mu$ e $\varphi$ - $i\sigma$ - $\mu$ e $\varphi$ ), Lat. 'su-mus' (es-u-mus). The suffix of the second person plural, -th, was extended in O.E. to all the plural persons of the present indicative: 'bind-a-th' ('we, you, they bind'), 'lær-a-th' ('we, you, they teach'). We have already mentioned the -th of the Imperative plural (§ 4). The suffix of the third person plural, -n, was extended in O.E. to all the plural persons of the past indicative ('bind-on', 'lærd-on') and of the present and past subjunctive ('bind-on', 'lærd-on') and of the present and past subjunctive ('bind-on', 'lærd-on') and of the present and past subjunctive ('bind-on', 'lærd-on') and English used -n for the plural endings of the present indicative, while Southern English retained -th; Northern English had taken -s, several centuries earlier, in the plural persons of the present indicative and in the plural imperative. The forms in -en died out of general use in the 16th century. The loss of this short syllable has been regretted by poets.

The suffix of the O.E. singular subjunctive, present and past, was -e, a mere remnant of fuller forms. Even this is now lost. In loose writing, the forms of the second and third persons singular of the present indicative are often used where we should expect the flexionless subjunctive; and Mr. H. Sweet has pointed out instances of a similar usage in the second person singular past subjunctive of weak verbs in late West Saxon. For 'wert', see § 15, below.

For general purposes, all the inflexions of number and person might have been dispensed with together.

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### Past Tense.

Sing. 1. (I) wrote

2. (Thou) wrotest

3. (He) wrote.

IMPERATIVE: Write.

Plur. 1. (We) wrote

2. (You) wrote

3. (They) wrote.

INFINITIVE: (To) write; writing.

### PARTICIPLES.

Present, Writing.

Past, Written.

# 13. The Conjugation of the Weak or New Verbs is seen in the following example:

### To Love.

Present Tense.

Love.

Past Tense.

Loved.

Past Participle.
Loved.

#### INDICATIVE MOOD.

### Present Tense.

Sing. 1st Person, (I) love
2nd,, (Thou) lovest
3rd,, (He) loves.

Plur. 1st Person, (We) love 2nd, (You) love 3rd, (They) love.

### Past Tense.

Sing. 1. (I) loved

2. (Thou) lovedst

3. (He) loved.

Plur. 1. (We) loved 2. (You) loved

3. (They) loved.

IMPERATIVE: Love.

INFINITIVE: (To) love; loving.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present, Loying.

Past, Loved.

# The Auxiliary Verbs.

- 14. The Auxiliary Verbs are joined to the other verbs to assist in expressing the tenses not expressed by Inflexions. They are: 'be', 'have', 'shall', and 'will'.
- 'May' and 'can' would be ranked as auxiliaries if we were to admit the potential mood into the conjugation of the verb. 'Do' is excluded as the help in making the emphatic form of the verb: it has a very much better claim to be regarded as an auxiliary in expressing negation, and in the inverted forms. These are all verbs of importance in the language.

15. To Be. A complete conjugation is pieced out by gathering forms from three distinct roots: as, was, and bhu (bu).

Present Tense.	Past W	Tensc. Vas.		Past Participle. Been.	
		IVE MOOD.			
		t Tense.			
	Fresen		_	<u> </u>	
Sing. 1. Am		Plur.			
2. Art				Are	
3. Is.			3.	Are.	
	Past	Tense.			
Sing. 1. Was		Plur.	1	Were	6.7
2. Wast,	(mort)			Were	
3. Was.	(MCIP)	OLE SOURCE STATE OF THE STATE O		Were.	
<b>0.</b> 11 as.			υ.	44 CTO6	
	SUBJUNCT	IVE MOOD.			
	Present	Tense.			
Sing. 1. Be		Plur.	1	Re	e
2. Be		2		Be	
3. Be.		Michel Control of the		Be.	
0. Dc.		J	υ.	De.	
	<b>P</b> ast	Tense.			æ
Sing. 1. Were	8	Plur.	1.	Were	
2. Were,	wert		2.	Were Were	
3. Were.		<b>THE COLUMN TO SERVICE STATE OF SERVICE STATE STATE STATE OF SERVICE STATE STATE STATE STATE STATE STATE OF SERVICE STATE STAT</b>		Were.	
IMPERATIVE:	Be•	INFINITIV		(To) be; being.	

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present, Being.

Past, Been.

Remains of root as.—'Am' is for ar-m, for as-m (§ 9).—'Art' is for as-t (§ 9).—'Is' was all that remained in the oldest English for as-th (compare Goth. and Germ. is-t, Gr.  $\ell\sigma$ - $\tau i$ , Lat. es-t, &c.). 'Are', O.E. (Northern) ar-on = as-on, from the full original form as-anti. Sanskrit has cut off the first part, making santi; Lat. sunt; Southern English, sind, sindon. The present subjunctive and imperative forms from the same root have long been superseded in English.

Remains of root was. The was-forms ran through the whole verb (except present indic.) in O.E., but they are now confined to the past indicative and subjunctive. 'Was', O.E. wæs, is the regular past of the old verb, wesan ('to be', 'happen'). 'Wast' (§ 9) is a 14th century form, replacing O.E. wære (for

wese), which might have been expected to remain 'were', and which has become 'wert' (§ 9): curiously enough, the Gothic had 'wast'.—'Were' (indicative) is O.E. wæron, weren, for an older wæsen: compare Gothic wes-um, wes-uth, wes-un. The subjunctive 'were' has similarly lost all its endings. 'Wert' very strongly shares the general tendency of indicative second persons singular to be transferred also to the subjunctive.

Remains of root bhu (bu). From this came our 'be' (as well as Lat. fu- in fui, &c.). The present, beo(m), bist, &c., was used in all the persons in O. E.; even in the 17th century 'be' and 'beest' fill all the persons; many examples are familiar in the Bible. 'Be', now flexionless, has superseded familiar in the Bible. the other two roots in the present subjunctive and the imperative; and wesan, &c., gave way to it in the infinitive and participles, about the 12th century.

How 'Be' helps.—By joining the past participle of a transitive verb to the verb 'be' throughout, we make the indefinite form of the passive voice; as 'he is loved',

'we were loved', 'to be loved', 'being loved'.

The participles make the sole exception: 'loved' gives the meaning sufficiently without 'been', and it is also used convertibly with 'being loved'. In O. E. the meanings of these forms were rather vague: 'is ofslægen'='is or has been slain'; 'was ofslægen' was simple past tense, or present perfect, or past perfect; and much of this vagueness yet remains.

With the past participle of an intransitive verb, 'be' forms perfect tenses: 'I am conie', 'the train was just gone'. German retains this construction in great activity; we employ 'have' also with intransitive as well as with transitive verbs. In O.E. the participle was inflected to agree with the subject: 'hi wæron

cumene', 'they were (had) come'.

By similarly joining the imperfect participle, there arises another form of the active voice, peculiar to the English language, called the progressive, incomplete, or imperfect form; as 'I am writing', 'I was writing', &c. In O.E., this form was very little, if anything, more than alternative with the regular inflexion: 'ge sindon leogende' ('you are lying') = 'ge leogath' ('you lie').
For the progressive forms with 'have', see § 16.

In all these applications of 'be', the old verb 'weorthan' ('to be', 'to become'), was also used in O.E: 'his hors wearth gesiclod' ('his horse became sickened', 'was taken ill'). Compare Germ. werden.

'Be' with the gerund expresses purpose or intention. 'I am to write' = 'I intend or purpose to write', 'I am going to write'. 'I shall write'. 'I was to write' = 'I intended to write'. Compare the formation of Lat. amabo = `(to) love + be I', 'I was to love', 'I shall love'; bo being a modification of the root bhu ('be'). Lat. amabam = `(to) love + be I', 'I was to love', 'I loved', passes from the intention to the fact. So amavi-ama-fui.

### 16. To Have.

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.				
Have.	Had.	Had.				
INDICATIVE MOOD.						
Present Tense.						
Sing. 1. Have 2. Hast 3. Has.	Plur.	<ol> <li>Have</li> <li>Have</li> <li>Have.</li> </ol>				
Past Tense.						
Sing. 1. Had 2. Hadst 3. Had.	Plur.	<ol> <li>Had</li> <li>Had</li> <li>Had.</li> </ol>				
SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.						
Present Tense.						
Sing. 1. Have 2. Have 3. Have.	Plur.	<ol> <li>Have</li> <li>Have</li> <li>Have.</li> </ol>				
Past Tense.						
Sing. 1. Had 2. Had 3. Had.	Plur.	<ol> <li>Had</li> <li>Had</li> <li>Had.</li> </ol>				

IMPERATIVE: Have.

INFINITIVE: (To) have, having.

### PARTICIPLES.

Present, Having.

Past, Had.

'Have' is a weak verb. O.E. habban ('to have') declined its present indic.: hæbbe, hæfst (hafast), hæfth (hafath), &c.; past, hæf-de (later hadde); past part., gehæfd. hæfed, later yhad. 'Hadst' appears as subjunctive: writers hesitate to commit

'Hadst' appears as subjunctive: writers hesitate to commit themselves to the bare form. 'If thou hadst said him nay, it had been sin.'

3rd Hen. VI. v. 6.

How 'Have' helps.—'Have' is used to make the Perfect forms. Followed by the past participle of another verb, 'have'

<sup>&</sup>quot;Hadst thou been killed when first thou didst presume,
Thou hadst not lived to kill a son of mine."

forms two tenses: 'hove loved' (present perfect), 'had loved' (past perfect). Now, as the participle 'loved' merely expresses completed action, withour reference to time, and as 'I have' means 'I possess' (at this moment), the union of the two comes to express perfect action likewise. 'I have written a letter' means 'I now possess a written letter'; whence it follows that the writing of the letter is an action finished, perfect, or complete. In O.E. the participle was inflected to agree with the object, this construction being primarily applied with transitive verbs, though afterwards extended to intransitives (§ 15), when the original formation was neglected. hæfdon hine ofslægenne', 'they had him (a) slain (man)', 'they had slain him'. But the inflexion began to drop very early. In O. E., 'have', 'had', were sometimes used to express the simple past tense.

The infinitive followed by a past participle forms a perfect infinitive active. 'to have loved', 'having loved'.

The present or imperfect participle 'having', joined to the past participle of a verb, yields a perfect participle active: 'having loved', 'having written'.

Have + Been. - The perfect forms of 'be', made up by the help of 'have', are also joined to both present and past participles. Followed by a present or imperfect participle, 'have, had, having, &c., been 'form what have been called continuous tenses, or tenses of continued action: 'I have been writing', to have been writing'. These are simply progressive perfect tenses; they stand to the perfect in much the same relation as the so-called 'progressive' stand in to the 'indefinite' tenses. (§ 40).

The same combinations with the past participle make the perfect forms of the passive: 'I have been loved', 'I had

been loved', 'having been loved'.

'Have' followed by the gerund expresses obligation: 'I have to write' = 'I am obliged to write', 'I must write'. 'I had to write' expresses past compulsion or pressure. With this combination compare the formation of the French future: aimer-ai = 'to love + have I'.

## 17. Shall and Will.

## Shall.

Present Tense.

Plur. 1. Shall Sing. 1. Shall 2. Shall 2. Shalt 3. Shall. 3. Shall.

### Past Tense.

Sing. 1. Should

2. Shouldst

3. Should.

Plur. 1. Should

2. Should

3. Should.

### Will.

### Present Tense.

Sing. 1. Will

2. Wilt

3. Will.

2. Will

3. Will.

### Past Tense.

Sing. 1. Would
2. Wouldst
3. Would.

Plur. 1. Would
2. Would
3. Would.
3. Would.

The negative won't is for 'wol not', an old form. 'Nill' ('will you, nill you'), O. E. nyllan = ne will (O. E. ne willan) = 'will not'.

18. Shall and Will are employed to form the future tenses in English: 'I shall go', 'he will go'.

In O. E. there was no special inflexion for the future, and the present was usually employed instead. 'Ga ge on mime wingeard, and ic sylle eow thæt riht bith', 'go into my vineyard, and I give (= shall give) you what is right': (quoted by Sweet). 'Shall' and 'will' are occasionally used, but seldom as pure future auxiliaries.

19. Shall originally means debt, obligation. Chaucer says 'that faith I shall (I owe) to God'. 'He shall suffer', is 'he owes to suffer', 'he is about to suffer'.

Grimm traces 'shall' (O.E. sceal, Goth. skal) to the past tense of a present meaning 'I kill'. Thus 'I shall' is 'I killed', or 'I have killed', and therefore 'I have to pay the legal fine'; hence, 'I am in debt, or under obligation', 'I must'.

20. Will, on the other hand, means intention or resolution, on the part of the agent, he being free to do as he pleases in the matter. 'I will go', means that it is in my option to go or not to go, and that I decide for going.

Thus there is a radical contrast of situation implied in the two words, namely, the difference between being under outward control, coercion, compulsion, influence, or pressure and being free to follow one's own feelings and wishes. 'I shall not be at home' is as much as to say that circumstances compel me to be absent; 'I will not be at home' implies that neither any other person's will nor any external compulsion whatsoever prevents me, but that it is my own free will and pleasure to be absent.

This great opposition of meaning determines the appropriate employment of the two words. The following phrases are wrong, although in common use by Scotchmen and Irishmen:
—'I will be obliged to you', 'I will be under the necessity', 'we will be at a loss', 'we will be compelled', 'I will be much gratified'. As the very nature of these expressions supposes obligation, or some influence from without, the use of 'will', which expresses the absence of all external pressure, is a contradiction; we ought to say, 'I shall be obliged', 'I shall be under the necessity', 'I shall be much gratified,' &c. 'Shall' is not necessarily limited to compulsion in the painful sense: if outward events (and not inward determinations) concur to impart benefits to an individual, the expression is 'shall': 'I shall be a great gainer', 'I shall be delightfully placed'.

# 21. Shall is the future auxiliary of the first person; will, of the second and third persons.

Through the use of 'shall', the bare fact of futurity is signified by the word expressing the compulsion of events. But it was natural that this application of 'shall' should come to be restricted to the first person; 'will', the sign of self-determining choice, appearing to be more proper for persons other than the speaker. Hence we say 'I shall come', to make known the future coming of the speaker, but not, 'you shall come', 'he shall come'; the auxiliary for these persons is considerately changed to 'you will come', 'he will come', when simple futurity is meant. The conjugation of the future tense of the verb is, therefore, as follows:—

Sing. 1. Shall come

Plur. 1. Shall come

2. Wilt come

2. Will come

3. Will come.

3. Will come.

22. The explanation of this distribution of the auxiliaries is found in considerations of courtesy or politeness.

When a person says 'I shall come', he uses a phrase which

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This apparent exception illustrates the rule; for in that case the reason for changing from 'shall' to 'will' no longer exists. 'You say you shall write', 'he says he shall write', are no breach of courtesy, because the saying is put into the mouth of the person that performs the action. These are the exact parallels of 'I shall write'; the speaker speaks only for himself. The following expressions are correct: 'he promises that his part shall be fulfilled'; 'we pledge ourselves that our future actions shall (not 'will') be in accordance with our yows'.

If, on the other hand, determination on the part of the subject is expressed, 'will' is used in all the persons: 'I will write', 'you say you will write', 'he says he will write'.

- 25. Whenever the action of external events comes into play, the speaker, using the first person, must pass from 'will' to 'shall'.
- 'If I draw a catgut, or any other cord, to a great length between my fingers, I will make it smaller than before' (Goldsmith). The proper word here is 'shall', because the making it smaller does not depend immediately upon the speaker's will, but grows out of the previous action. A similar consideration dictates the use of 'shall' when the speaker has once pledged himself to a certain course, and is merely following out that pledge. An author states at the outset the plan of his work, and as he proceeds with the execution of that plan, he says, 'I shall next consider'. The following may be explained on this principle: 'we shall now proceed to mention some of the most famous'; 'I will begin with a passage of considerable beauty'. The first expression is justifiable, as being a continuation or following up of the author's plan, to which he had committed himself; the other indicates a new start, and he therefore reverts to the auxiliary of free will. 'I will' may be softened into 'I shall', even in cases of determination, to give less of the appearance of egotism: the speaker pretending, as it were, that he is the humble instrument of events in what he is about to do; but the substitution of 'I will' for 'I shall' is always an error.
- 26. In Interrogative Sentences, the second person takes the place of the first; but it is only for determination on the part of the person interrogated that the three persons can be all made use of: 'will you go?' 'shall I go?' 'shall he go?' The corresponding expressions in the case of mere

futurity exist only for two persons: 'shall you go?'
'will he go?' 'will it appear soon?'

The meanings of the first form are: 'is it your will to go' (will you)? 'is it your will that I go' (shall I)? 'is it your will that he go' (shall he)? The second person is appealed to as the source of will and authority, and corresponds to the first person in affirmatory speech.

But we cannot, for simple inquiry as to the future, reverse the forms throughout thus: 'shall you go?' 'will I go?' 'will he go?' By attending to the original meaning of the auxiliaries we shall be able to comprehend the force of these several inter-

rogatories.

The first, 'shall you go?' on a strict interpretation, may be supposed to mean, 'will events permit or require you to go?' whence it seems the appropriate interrogative for mere futurity. When we are in total ignorance of the determining circumstances, or are unable to say whether events or the person's own will are to decide the point, we may be expected to say 'shall you?' This form is not objected to on the ground of representing the person addressed as at the mercy of outward circumstances; it is a well established English usage. The form 'will you?' is less seldom employed, although admissible; it seems to suppose that the person's mind is not yet made up. We must regard it as suitable to the case where we appeal to another person, to state what his determination is in a case depending on him. But 'shall you?' is more generally applicable.

The form 'will I?' is an absurdity, as the speaker asks the other party what he himself alone can know, namely, his own will and determination. There is no situation where this expression is admissible; unless we except the peculiar case where the speaker repeats with the first personal pronoun a question as to his own intentions, or answers it by another question similarly formed. 'Will you be there?' 'Will I be there? Will I be alive? Certainly.' 'Will I?' for 'Shall I?'

is a common Scotticism.

'Will he?' would naturally mean 'is it his will to do so and so?' and this is probably in accordance with usage. When we are in doubt as to how a person will act in matters within his own power, we say 'but will he?' When we are inquiring into mere futurity, however, we must still use the same form in preference to 'shall he?' which puts the case as depending upon the person addressed. We must say, 'will he be there?' 'will it be fine?' 'will there be a large assembly?' all intending to mean futurity. We often prefer forms different from either

for the simple future: 'is he to be there?' 'do you expect him

there?' 'is the meeting to take place?'

There is a Scotticism committed in responding to the interrogative 'will you?' It consists in saying 'I shall', for 'I will'. 'I shall' is objectionable, as indicating, not hearty goodwill and concurrence to do the thing required, but a mere acquiesence in the compulsion of circumstances. It is a still more vulgar error to say 'will that be all you want?' for 'is that all you want?'

Further Examples of 'Shall' and 'Will'.—The distinction of the two words is illustrated by the supposed exclamation of an Irishman on falling into the water; 'I will be drowned, and nobody shall help me'. While intending to express his apprehensions and to invoke help, he in reality declares with emphasis that it is his determination to drown himself, and to resist any one that would rescue him. The following passages discriminate the two auxiliaries with precision: 'The spirit of my father grows strong in me, and I will no longer endure it'.

. 'He that escapes me without some broken limb shall acquit him well (ironical promise)' . . . 'Charles, I thank thee for thy love to me, which thou shalt find I will most kindly requite.' . . . 'Truly, when he dies, thou shalt be his heir, for what he hath taken away from thy father perforce, I will render thee again in affection; by mine honour, I will' (Shaks., As you like it, i.).

When Tennyson makes Enone say 'I will not die alone', he intimates that she is determined that others shall die with her. 'I shall not die alone' means that 'the course of fate will

overwhelm other persons along with me'.

In the Litany,—'Glory be to the Father—as it was in the beginning, is now, and ever shall be',—the 'shall' means

emphatically that a power has ordained this to be.

Lindley Murray considers the translation of the concluding verse of the 23rd Psalm to be incorrectly rendered. 'Surely goodness and mercy shall follow me all the days of my life, and I will dwell in the house of the Lord for ever'; he would make it 'will follow' and 'shall dwell'. But this is a question of meaning. As now rendered, the first clause is a promise, 'goodness and mercy are ordained to follow me', which is not improbably the true meaning. The second clause would imply, 'it is my determination and preference to dwell in the house of the Lord'; but if the meaning be, 'I am destined to have bestowed upon me a dwelling in the house of the Lord', the suitable auxiliary is 'shall'.

In dependent clauses the construction is somewhat complicated. In a sentence with two co-ordinate parts, like the following, the usage is plain: 'I will be there at six o'clock, when it will be light'; this means. 'I resolve to be there at six, and at that time it will be light'. But if the second clause is a condition of the first, the case is altered: 'I will be there when it shall be light'; 'when 'here stands for 'whenever', and the fact of its being light is no longer an assertion of futurity, but of eventuality; in the event of its being light, or when the course of things brings about that circumstance. In the sentence, 'how heavy their punishment will be who will at any time resist', there is a meaning distinct from what would have been given by 'who shall at any time resist'. The first supposes a definite case of resistance; there are actual persons resolved upon resisting, and their punishment will be The second is a mere supposition or contingency: 'if it should arise that any persons are found to resist'. (Sir F. Head, on Shall and Will).

The following examples are given in Connon's Grammar as incorrect, but they may all be defended: 'An extract from Mr. Hallam shall close the present section and introduce the next.' 'Here, then, the present introductory course of lectures shall close.' 'Theocritus, in an epigram, which shall be cited in the next note, dedicates myrtles to Apollo.' These may all be interpreted as promises or pledges on the part of the authors to do a certain thing, and for this the expression in the third person is 'shall'. 'I hereby give assurance that the present course shall close', is perfectly consistent with the meaning of 'shall'. 'Will' might have been used in those cases, and then we should have interpreted the speaker as expressing only the mere fact of futurity. The following is more questionable: 'Now, in an inquiry into the credibility of history, the first question which we will consider is. Here 'will' is not absolutely wrong, but 'shall' would have been preferable, because the writer is supposed to be committed by his subject to a certain course. This is one of the doubtful situations where either usage can be justified.

'I will (my resolution) give them an everlasting name, that

shall (my controlling power) not to be cut off.'

'Every place whereon the soles of your feet shall (eventuality) tread shall (promise of the speaker, who controls the event) be yours.'

'Nay, but we will (our resolution) have a king over us.'
'Accidents will happen': a personification of accidents, as if they were determined to happen, and consequently do happen. This form has largely the force of the present indefinite tense.

(Additional illustrations may be found in the Companion to the Higher Grammar, pp. 179-184.)

27. Would and should follow the rules of 'shall' and 'will' when employed in parallel circumstances: 'I should', 'you would', 'he would', express contingent futurity; 'I would', 'you would', 'he would', signify the past or recorded determination of the subject; 'I should', 'you should', 'he should', express that the subject is controlled by some other power.

As a past future is a contradiction, the form 'I should' is taken to express a future that is doubtful, conditional, or merely supposed. If we were discussing an arrangement that is as yet undetermined one way or other, it would be admissible to say 'I should take part', 'you would', 'they would'. When actually fixed and settled, the language becomes 'I shall', 'you will', 'they will'. This mode of converting future verbs into forms for contingency is not uncommon. The French modify 'irai' (I shall go) by a slight addition into 'irais' (I should go), called the conditional mood.

The same errors are committed with 'would' and 'should' as with 'shall' and 'will'. When one is under influence from without, 'I would' is improper; it is wrong to say 'I would be surprised', 'I would be obliged', 'I would be under the necessity', 'I would be delighted'; in none of these cases is the effect dependent on the speaker's will. The correct expression is, 'I should be surprised', &c.

As regards determination, 'would' exactly tallies with 'will'. It expresses past, or recorded determination. 'I would go' is a record of my resolution on some past occasion. So 'you would go', 'they would go', in like manner record that 'you' or 'they'

had in a certain past instance the resolution to go.

But when the determination proceeds from a power external to the subject, 'should' comes in as a matter of course: 'I said you and they should go' = 'it was my will that you were to go'.

- 28. When past time is not involved, 'I would' is contingent determination; 'I should' means duty, obligation, or being under the influence of events. 'I would do it if I were you'; 'I should do it' (it is my duty to do it). So with 'you should', 'they should', obligation is implied.
  - 29. The Future Subjunctive is 'I should',

'thou should', 'he should,' &c.: 'if I, you, he, should find what you wish'.

In dependent statements there are necessarily two clauses. The one states what is conditional, the other states the condition, and is introduced by one of the conjunctions of condition, 'if', 'though', 'unless,' &c. The condition is in the subjunctive mood; the conditioned statement is variously expressed. 'If he should fail, I should have to make it good,' or, 'I shall have to make it good;' or 'I will', or 'would, make it good'.

The following is an error (if a mere assumption with regard to the future be intended, without any sense of wish or desire): 'if I would declare them, and speak of them, they are more than can be numbered'. In the sentence, 'if I should declare them, and speak of them, they should be more than I am able to express', the first is right, the second is wrong, as being a case of mere contingent futurity, without obligation. The sense of 'should' is, 'they ought to be more than I am able to express'.

Further examples of 'Would' and 'Should'.—'Were he more diligent, he would be more successful', not 'should'. 'Were he to do such a thing in England, he would be hanged', expresses a contingent future consequence; but 'should be hanged' means that he would deserve to be hanged, owing to some aggravation connected with the performance of the act in England. 'This man was taken of the Jews, and should have been killed of them'; this conveys to our ears the meaning that he ought to have been killed.—(Harrison).

It is to be remarked that 'should' and 'would' are, in many instances, softened forms of 'shall' and 'will'. 'I should be very much surprised' may refer to an actual future, and is an indirect and elliptical way of saying 'I shall be very much surprised'. Both 'it should seem' and 'it would seem' are modestly used for 'it seems'. In such a sentence as the following also, 'should' is used as an expression of diffidence:—'I have so much confidence in the sagacity of the Romans within the somewhat narrow sphere of their thoughts, that I should be cautious in criticising their military and diplomatic administration'; that is, I am disposed to be cautious, I prefer to be cautious. If the writer had been more confident and dogmatic, he would have used an indicative form, 'I am' or 'shall be cautious'. In Shakspeare we have 'What should be in that Cæsar?' for 'what is there?' In other words, 'I should be glad to know, I wonder what there is in that Cæsar?'

(For additional illustrations, see the Companion to the Higher

Grammar, pp. 185-197.)

30. In Interrogation, 'would you?' 'should I?' 'should he?' inquire what is the determination of of the person addressed. 'Should you?' is contingent future (except when for 'ought you?'); 'would I?' is wholly inadmissible. 'Would he?' asks information as to the probable intentions of the person spoken of: 'do you think he would go?'

These are in exact accordance with the usage of 'will' and 'shall' in interrogation.

### 31. To Do.

Past Tense. Present Tense. Past Participle. Do. Did. Done.

Present Tense. - I do; thou doest, or dost; he does, doeth, or doth; we, you, they do.

Past Tense.—I did, thou didst, he, &c., did.

Imperfect Participle.—Doing.

'Do' is a tense auxiliary in such cases as—'thou dost prefer (=preferrest) above all temples the upright heart and pure', 'as if they did rejoice (=rejoiced) o'er a young earthquake's birth'; and especially in inversions: 'not for those . . . do I repent or change'; 'never did any man labour more zealously '.

Thus, it is the form of interrogation (an inversion of order):

'do you write?' 'Did ye not hear it?'

It is also the negative form: 'you do not write'; 'I did not hear it'. This must be considered the usual and proper form of negation. 'You write not', 'I heard it not', were common formerly, but now occur only in poetry, and in some rare instances where they are thought to be emphatic. 'I know not' should be 'I do not know'. 'Some believed, and some believed not', in modern rendering is-'Some believed, and some did not (believe)'.

Besides these uses as an auxiliary of tense, 'do' makes the emphatic form of the verb; as 'I do love', 'he did write'. 'Perdition catch my soul, but I do love thee.'

'Do' has a form peculiar to itself; it can be put as a substitute for other verbs (except 'be'): 'he speaks as well as you do' (for 'speak'): 'he spoke better than you could have done (spoken)'; 'he loves not plays, as thou dost'. This corresponds with the power of the pronoun to act as a substitute for the noun, and we might therefore call 'do' the pro-verb.

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This difference somewhat resembles the distinction of 'shall' and 'will'. It is the contrast between the operation of a power without or above, and a power inhering in the individual. In giving or asking permission we must use 'may': 'you may go', 'may I come?' The Scotch erroneously use 'can' for this meaning. In giving permission they often say 'you can go'; and in asking permission, 'can I see it?' A porter at a gate, on being applied to for liberty to enter, will say 'I cannot', when he means that he is forbidden by his instructions, and is not free to admit any one: the real meaning of 'I cannot' would be, that he is physically unable to open the gate. 'Can I cross the field?' means 'is there a way?' 'may I cross the field?' is 'am I allowed to cross? is there a right of way?' 'I cannot lift that weight', 'I cannot play the flute', 'I cannot see the hills', all imply incapability on the part of the individual. 'He may not 'would mean that, though he may have the capability to do these things, he is forbidden by some authority.

In Lord Chatham's celebrated utterance—' The Englishman's house is his castle; every wind may enter it, but the king cannot, the king dare not enter '- 'cannot' is used for 'may not' by a figure of speech; so secure is the Englishman in this inviolability of his house, that the king is as it were physically unable

to pass his threshold.

34. May also means possibility or concession; as 'he may come yet'; 'that may be so, but I doubt it'; 'you may recover your loss'.

This is merely a peculiar case of the principal meaning: it is, as it were, permission in the midst of difficulties.

In the phrase 'he hastens that he may be in time', we have an example of another application of the word, still under the original idea; 'that it be in his power—that he be able to be in time'.

35. Placed before its subject, may expresses a wish: 'may you be happy'.

There is here a shortening, or ellipsis, of a roundabout expression: 'it is my wish that you may be happy, or that you be able to be happy '.

36. Could, besides being the past of 'can' ('he could not go yesterday'), expresses present power conditionally; 'he could go to-day if he would'.

Might expresses past permission as reported

in the present; 'he told me that I might go'. More rarely it expresses past permission simply: 'I might not go', for 'I was not allowed to go'.

## 37. Must is invariable for tense, number, person.

The O.E. present was mot; past, moste. 'Must' now stands

for present as well as for past. The inflexions are all gone.

'Mot' meant 'may', 'can', 'be allowed', 'have opportunity'.

'Not so happy as mote happy be' (Spenser, Faery Queene, I. ix.):
'mote' = 'might', or 'could'. 'Must' now means necessity, in various forms. (1) Compulsion from without: 'he must work'. (2) Uncontrollable desire, amounting almost to physical necessity: 'he must have society'. (3) Certainty, or necessary inference, something that we can count on: 'it must be so; Plato, thou reasonest well'.

# 38. Ought signifies moral obligation, duty: 'you ought to go' is 'it is your duty to go'.

When past time is to be expressed 'ought' is joined to a perfect infinitive: 'you ought to have gone', is 'it was your

duty to go'.

'Ought', though now used as a present, is really the past tense of the verb 'owe', in its old sense of 'have', 'possess'. Compare 'that sweet sleep which thou owedst (=hadst) yesterday '(Shak., Oth. iii. 3); 'the disposition that I owe (= have, possess') (Shak., Macb. iii. 4.). Spenser uses 'ought' = 'owned', 'possessed'. Thus, 'you ought to go' may be compared with 'you have to go'.

'Owe' = 'to be in debt', is a regular weak verb, with past tense and past part., 'owed'.

### 39. Go.

Pres. Tense.—I go, thou goest, he goes; we, &c., go. Past Tense.—I went, thou wentest, he, &c., went. Past Participle.—Gone.

By employing the imperfect participle of this verb as an auxiliary, we obtain a series of forms for expressing an intention about to be executed; as 'I am going to write', 'I have been going to write', 'I was going to write', 'I had been going to write', 'I shall be going to write', 'I shall have been going to write,' &c. Almost the very same meaning is stated by 'about': 'I am about to write'.

# 40. The following is a Complete Scheme of the Verb as made up by means of the various auxiliaries:—

# Conjugation of an Active Verb.

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

### Present.

Indefinite.—I write, thou writest, he writes; we, you, they—write.

Progressive.—I am, thou art, he is, we, you, they are—writing.

Perfect.—I have, thou hast, &c.—written.

Continuous.—I have, thou hast, &c.—been writing.

### Past.

Indefinite.—I wrote, thou wrotest, he, we, you, they—wrote. Progressive.—I was, thou wast, he was, we, you, they were—writing.

Perfect.—I had, thou hadst, &c.—written.

Continuous. - I had, thou hadst, &c. -been writing.

### Future.

Indefinite.—I shall, thou wilt. he will, we shall, you will, they will—write.

Progressive.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, we shall, you will,

they will—be writing.

Perfect. - I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c. - have written.

Continuous.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c.—have been writing.

### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

### Present.

Indefinite.—(If) I, thou, he, we, you, they—write. Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—be writing.

Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—have written.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—have been writing.

### Past.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—wrote.

Progressive. —I, thou, he, we, you, they—were writing.

Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—had written.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—had been writing.

### Future.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—should write.

Progressive.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—should be writing.

Perfect.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—should have written.

Continuous.—I, thou, he, we, you, they—should have been writing.

### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present.

Write.

### INFINITIVE MOOD AND GERUND.

Indefinite.—(To) write; writing.

Progressive.—(To) be writing.

Perfect.—(To) have written.

Continuous.—(To) have been writing.

### PARTICIPLES.

Indefinite. —Writing. Perfect. —Having written. Continuous. —Having been writing.

# Conjugation of a Passive Verb.

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

### Present.

Indefinite.—I am, thou art, he is, &c.—loved.

Progressive.—I am, thou art, he is, &c.—being loved.

Perfect.—I have, thou hast, he has, &c.—been loved.

### Past.

Indefinite.—I was, thou wast, he was, &c.—loved.

Progressive.—I was, thou wast, he was, &c.—being loved.

Perfect.—I had, thou hadst, he had, &c.—been loved.

### Future.

Indefinite.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, we shall, &c.—be loved. Perfect.—I shall, thou wilt, he will, &c.—have been loved.

### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

### Present.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, &c.—be loved. Perfect.—I, thou, he, &c.—have been loved.

### Past.

Indefinite.—I, thou, he, &c.—were loved.

Progressive.—I, thou, &c.—were being loved.

Perfect.—I had, &c.—been loved.

### Future.

Indefinite.—I, thou, &c.—should be loved. Perject.—I, &c.—should have been loved.

### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Present.

Be loved.

### INFINITIVE MOOD AND GERUND.

Indefinite.—(To) be loved.

Perfect.—(To) have been loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Indefinite.—Loved, or Being loved. Perfect.—Having been loved.

## Meanings of the Moods.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

41. In Subordinate Clauses.—In a Clause expressing a condition, and introduced by a Conjunction of condition, the Verb is sometimes, but not always, in the Subjunctive Mood: 'if I be able', 'if I were strong enough', 'if thou should come'.

The subjunctive inflexions have been wholly lost. The sense that something is wanting appears to have led many writers to use indicative forms where the subjunctive might be expected. The tendency appears strongest in the case of 'wert', which is now used as indicative (for 'wast') only in poetical or elevated language.

The following is the rule given for the use of the subjunctive

mood:

42. When in a Conditional Clause it is intended to express Doubt or Denial, use the Subjunctive Mood.\* 'If I were sure of what you tell me, I would go.'

When the conditional clause is affirmative and certain, the verb is indicative: 'if that is the case' (as you now tell me, and I believe) 'I can understand you'. This is equivalent to a clause of assumption, or supposition: 'that being the case', 'inasmuch as that is the case', &c.

As futurity is by its nature uncertain, the subjunctive is extensively used for future conditionality: 'if it rain, we shall not be able to go'; 'if I be well'; 'if he come shortly'; 'if thou return at all in peace'; 'though he slay me, yet will I trust in him'. These events are all in the uncertain future, and are put in the subjunctive.

\*Dr. Angus on the English Tongue, art. 527.

<sup>†</sup> In the following passages, the indicative mood would be more suitable than the subjunctive: 'If thou be the Son of God, command that

A future result or consequence is expressed by the subjunctive in such instances as these: 'I will wait till he return'; 'no fear lest dinner cool'; 'thou shalt stone him with stones, that he die'; 'take heed lest at any time your hearts be overcharged with surfeiting'.

Uncertainty as to a past event may arise from our own ignorance, in which case the subjunctive is properly employed, and serves the useful purpose of distinguishing our ignorance from our knowledge. 'If any of my readers has looked with so little attention upon the world around him'; this would mean—'as I know that they have'. The meaning intended is probably—'as I do not know whether they have or not', and therefore the subjunctive 'have' is preferable. 'If ignorance is bliss', which I (ironically) admit. Had Pope been speaking seriously, he would have said 'if ignorance be bliss', he himself dissenting from the proposition.

A wish contrary to the fact takes the subjunctive: 'I wish he were here' (which he is not).

An intention not yet carried out is also subjunctive:

'the sentence is that you be imprisoned'.

The only correct form of the future subjunctive is—'if I should'. We may say 'I do not know whether or not I shall come'; but 'if I shall come', expressing a condition, is not an English construction 'If he will' has a real meaning, as being the present subjunctive of the verb 'will': 'if he be willing', 'if he have the will'. It is in accordance with good usage to express a future subjunctive meaning by a present tense; but in that case the form must be strictly subjunctive, and not indicative. 'If any member absents himself, he shall forfeit a penny for the use of the club'; this ought to be either 'absent', or 'should absent'. 'If thou neglectest, or doest unwillingly, what I command thee, I will rack thee with old cramps'; better, 'if thou neglect, or do unwillingly', or 'if thou should neglect'. The indicative would be justified by the speaker's belief that the supposition is sure to turn out to be the fact.

these stones be made bread'; 'if thou be the Son of God, come down from the cross'. For although the address was not sincere on the part of the speakers, they really meant to make the supposition or to grant that he was the Son of God; 'seeing that thou art the Son of God'. Likewise in the following: 'Now if Christ be preached, that He rose from the dead, how say some among you that there is no resurrection from the dead?' The meaning is 'seeing now that Christ is preached'. In the continuation, the conditional clauses are of a different character, and 'be' is appropriate: 'But if there be no resurrection from the dead, then is Christ not risen. And if Christ be not risen, then is our preaching vain, and your faith is also vain'. Again, 'if thou bring thy gift to the altar, and there rememberest, &c.' Consistency and correctness require 'remember'.—Harrison on the English Language, p. 257.

- 43. The Past Subjunctive may imply denial; as 'if the book were in the library (as it is not), it should be at your service'.

'If the book be in the library', means, 'I do not know whether it be or not'. We have thus the power of discriminating three different suppositions. 'If the book is in the library' (as I know it is); 'if it be' (I am uncertain); 'if it were' (as I know it is not). So, 'if it rains', 'if it rain', 'if it rained'. 'Nay, and the villains march wide between the legs, as if they had gyves on', implying that they had not.

The same power of the past tense is exemplified in 'if I could, I would', which means, 'I cannot'; whereas, 'if I can, I will', means 'I do not know'.

- 44. The Past Subjunctive may be expressed by an inversion: 'had I the power', 'were I as I have been'.
- 45. In Principal Clauses.—The principal clause in a conditional statement also takes the Subjunctive form when it refers to what is future and contingent, and when it refers to what is past and uncertain, or denied. 'If he should try, he would succeed;' 'if I had seen him, I should have asked him'.

The usual forms of the subjunctive in the principal clause, are 'would', 'should', 'would have', 'should have'; and it is to be noted that in this application the second persons take the inflexional ending of the indicative: 'shouldst', 'wouldst'.

'If 'twere done, when 'tis done, then 'twere (would be) well It were (should be) done quickly.'

The English idiom appears sometimes to permit the use of an indicative where we should expect a subjunctive form. 'Many acts, that had been otherwise blameable, were employed; 'I had fainted, unless I had believed', &c.

Which else lie furled and shrouded in the soul."

In 'else' there is implied a conditional clause that would suit 'lie'; or the present may be regarded as a more vivid form of expression. 'Had 'may be indicative; just as we sometimes find pluperfect indicative for pluperfect subjunctive in the same circumstances in Latin. We may refer it to the general tendency, as already seen in the uses of 'could', 'would', 'should', &c., to express conditionality by a past tense; or

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Frequently we know from the context that the affirmation is for the present only. When any one says 'the door is open', we understand that it is not always open, but is so at present. 'The wind blows hard', 'we are late', 'the stranger speaks to you', 'Mr. Speaker is in the chair', are declarations known from the circumstances to be strictly present, as opposed to past and future.

49. This Tense has sometimes a future meaning; as 'Duncan comes here to-night'; 'I go to my father'.

It has already been remarked that the present was the usual expression of future time in O. E., there being no future inflexion.

In the first example above, the futurity is definitely expressed by the adverb 'to-night'. In the second example, the meaning of the verb points to the future; the action 'I go' is a continuing action.

Also in such a phrase as 'how is the government to be carried on?' futurity is involved in the gerund form 'to be carried on'.

We have seen that a future subjunctive is expressed by a

present tense.

There is a rhetorical employment of the tense known as the historic present. This consists in describing past events as if the narrator saw them passing before his eyes:

'Fierce as he moves, his silver shafts resound.'

THE PRESENT PROGRESSIVE, IMPERFECT, OR INCOMPLETE.

50. The Progressive form, 'I am writing', expresses the continuance of the action over some time. It is, moreover, a true or strict present tense.

This peculiarly English form enables us both to confine an action or a fact to the present, instead of extending it over all time, and to intimate that the agent is now engrossed, and is barred from other occupation. Even when the indefinite tense is limited by the context to a present operation, it does not mean the same as the progressive. 'He writes' merely states the action that he is engaged in, and implies that he does not read, or walk, or talk, or sit idle. 'He is writing' indicates that he is now fully occupied. and is not available for any other work. Hence, in describing immediate occupation, this tense is used: 'he is balancing his books'; 'he is revising his mathematics'; 'he is pursuing his investigations'; 'the boys are playing'.

#### THE PAST TENSES.

51. The Past Indefinite states something that was formerly true, but is no longer so: 'at Athens the poets sang, and the sages taught'; 'there my young footsteps in infancy wandered'; 'he died, no one knew how'.

The very nature of this tense implies limitation as compared with the present. It may indicate various degrees of extent of time. 'In the geological ages, the air had more carbon', may apply to a period of millions of years; it is a law of nature applicable to a period of great duration, but now passed. Or it may denote a single act of the least possible extent of time: 'the lightning flashed', 'the tree was shivered'. The tense does not indicate how far back in the past the event took place.

52. The Past Progressive, like the Present, affirms continuance: 'I was musing'; 'he was speaking'; 'the sun was shining'.

The progressive tenses, both present and past, are often erroneously used for the indefinite. When the object is merely to specify an action, and not to point out the fact of its continuing for some time, the indefinite forms are to be used: 'I walk'; 'he rides'; 'you go in the boat'; 'I read'; 'he sketched'; 'they stood by'. In all these expressions nothing further is intended than to assign to each party concerned their several actions: it is not meant to say whether the actions are of longer or shorter continuance. But, 'I am walking', 'I was riding', 'they were gazing at the scene', signify that the action lasted for some time, and constituted the occupation of the persons concerned. When, therefore, without wishing to signify continuance or occupation, we employ a progressive tense, we violate the best English usage. The expressions, 'the master is calling you', 'he is speaking to you', 'were you ringing?' 'I was supposing', 'he is not intending', are Scotticisms for 'the master calls', 'he speaks to you', 'did you ring?' 'I supposed', 'he does not intend'. 'I talked yesterday with a foreigner', 'I saw in the papers', 'I heard in the morning', are more in accordance with idiom than would be the progressive form in those instances, if we suppose no stress laid progressive form in those instances, if we suppose no stress laid on the continuance of the action. 'He leaves town to-morrow', is better than 'he is leaving town to-morrow'. 'He is leaving for India, may be justified on the ground that he is to be occupied for some time with the preparations implied in so distant a migration.

#### THE PERFECT TENSES.

53. The Present Perfect expresses (I) an action just finished, (2) an action done in a space of time not yet exhausted, (3) something whose consequences still remain. (1.) 'I have sent the letter'; 'the messenger has come'. (2.) 'It has rained all the week (up to this time)'; 'we have seen great events this year'. (3.) 'I have been a great sinner'; meaning I was so in my youth, and now bear the consequences.

The perfect, by expressing that an action is finished or complete, indicates that it is past; but this tense should not be used to express past time without some of the accompaniments above described. 'This mode of expression has been formerly very much admired', should be 'was'.

From expressing the finishing of an action, the perfect has been used to signify the state of vacuity that follows: 'he has been' = 'he is no more'; 'he is dead' (Lat. vixit, 'he has lived'). 'I have been young', is 'I am now old'.

The perfect of continued action, the Perfect Progressive or Continuous. 'I have been working', is correctly understood by combining the meaning of a progressive and of a perfect tense. It is an action expressed as going on up to the present time.

The so-called *present intentional*, 'I am going (or about) to write', is the exact opposite of the perfect. The one is an action just finished, the other an action just commencing.

THE PROGRESSIVE TENSES OF THE PASSIVE VOICE.

54. In the Passive Voice, the Progressive Tenses are, 'I am being loved', 'I was being loved', '(if) I were being loved'. These forms are of recent introduction.

The English verb has no strictly imperfect participle passive. 'Loved' is past and indefinite, depending for its precise shade of time meaning upon the principal verb it is joined in construction with. Hence, although we can constitute a progressive tense in the active voice, by the active participle and the verb 'be',—'he is living', we have no corresponding passive form: 'am loved' makes the indefinite form. To try to give 'loved' the desired meaning of continuance, the imperfect or incomplete being has been prefixed: 'being loved', = 'existing in the loved state or condition', is thus an indefinite participle that may easily be interpreted in the sense of a continuing action. The form, indeed, is objectionable, partly as being cumbrous, and partly because it is very often used in a purely past meaning without reference to continuance. 'Napoleon, being defeated at Waterloo, surrendered to the English' is the same as 'Napoleon was defeated and surrendered'.

Formerly the meaning was very often given by an apparent use of the active form in the passive sense: 'the house is building' for 'the house is being built'. But the transferred application of the active form is not real. 'The house is building' is a degenerate form of 'the house is a-building'; the original expression of which is seen fully in examples like 'forty and six years was this temple in building'. 'Building', then, is originally a verbal noun; but it has come to have the force of an active participle used in the passive or intransitive sense.

It is very seldom that the old usage causes any ambiguity or hesitation, as numberless examples would show. Johnson says 'my Lives are reprinting'. We constantly say 'the house is finishing', 'the declaration was reading', 'the debt is owing', 'the paper is missing', 'five pounds is wanting', 'the cows are milking', 'the drums are beating', 'the cannon are firing',

'the troops are arming'.

Similar instances of the employment of the active form for the general expression of the action of the verb—instances where the verb is intransitive, and might in one view have been expected to become passive—are very common. We have them in such gerund phrases as 'a house to let', \* 'hard to understand' (= hard fer one to understand; hard, if you want to understand (it), i.e. = hard to be understood), 'good to eat', 'books to sell', \* 'he is to blame', 'drinking-water (fit for drinking, or to be drunk)', 'a riding-horse'. Milton says, 'that cannot but by annihilating die'.

### 55. Intransitive verbs have no passive voice.

There is the appearance of a passive form in examples like 'is come', 'was arrived'. But this construction is merely the remains of the regular formation of the perfect tense of intransitives by help of the auxiliary 'be'. Compare the German usage. 'Have' originally belongs to the transitive verbs, but has improperly been transferred to the intransitives also. We say 'has come' as well as 'is come'. It would seem advan-

<sup>\*</sup> These, and not 'a house to be let', 'to be sold', are the genuine English forms.

tageous to utilise the two forms for different meanings. 'Has come 'appears more suitable to the case of an active or personal subject: 'John has come'; the other to a passive or inanimate subject: 'the box is come'. Hence, for 'the noble Brutus is ascended', we should now prefer 'has ascended'. 'He was (had) entered into the connexion' is a Scotticism.

#### The Strong Conjugation.

56. The Old or Strong Verbs form their past tense by modifying the vowel of the present and their past participle ends (or ended) in -n (-en).

We have already seen (§ 8) that the modification of the root vowel arose in the first instance as a result of reduplication. The -n ending of the participle is often dropt.

The following classification proceeds according to the living forms of the Past Tense and of the Past Participle, not according

to the original inflexions.

57. 1. Some strong verbs change the vowel of the Present for the Past Tense and leave it unchanged in the Past Participle.

(1) Past Vowel, á:

Present Tense.	Past Tense.	Past Participle.
é:	á	é:
eat	ate	eaten
<b>i</b> :		<b>i</b> :
give	gave	given
* <b>ù</b> :		<b>ù</b> :
come	came	come

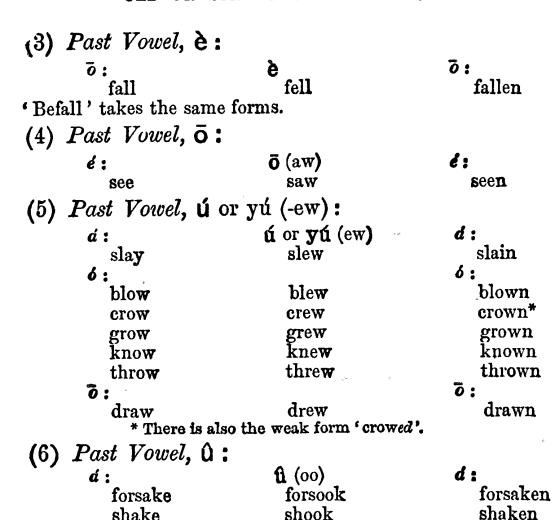
The compounds—'forgive', 'become', 'overcome'—are conjugated similarly.

(2) Past Vowel, a:

t:
bid
bade
bidden, bid

i:
run
ran
run

Forbid' is conjugated like 'bid'. 'Bade' (O.E. bæd) has a companion form 'bid' (§ 60), adopted from p. part. 'Run' (O.E. yrne, rinne) originally belongs to the class in § 59, 3, (1), 'begin', &c.



take took taken In the 16th and 17th centuries the past forms 'forsook', 'shook', 'took', 'mistook', were often used for the past participle. For 'shaken', the weak form 'shaked' is also found.

58. 2. Some strong verbs change the vowel of the Present in the same manner for both Past Tense and Past Participle.

(1) *Vowel* **a**:

shake

lay i: lie

The past part. 'lien' was not uncommon in the 16th and 17th centuries.

(2) Vowel **à**:

i: sit sat sat spat spat

'Sat', p. part., has been transferred from the past tense to take the place of 'sitten', O.E. seten. 'Sate', past and p. p., used to be common a short time ago.

'Spat' is historically weak in the past, and in the past part. has replaced 'spitten'.

#### (3) Vowel è:

beheld beheld 6: behold held held  $\mathbf{hold}$ 

'Beholden' and 'holden', past part., have given way, except occasionally in special expressions, to the past forms 'beheld', 'held'. So 'uphold', 'withhold'.

#### (4) Vowel 1:

bitten, bit bit i: bite chidden, chid chid chide hidden, hid hide hid slidden, slid slid slide

'Bite', 'chide', and 'slide' were formerly conjugated like 'arise', 'drive', &c., (§ 59, 3 (3)), the past forms being 'bot', 'chode' (in Bible), 'slode' (O.E., bat, cad, slad). 'Bit' and 'slid' have been assimilated to the past participles. 'Chid' (O.E. cidde, chidde) is weak. 'Hid', past, (O.E. hidde), is also weak. 'Rid', 'smit', 'writ', &c., also influenced by the participle, were common past forms in the 16th and 17th centuries. 'Betide' would seem to belong here, but it is weak throughout.

#### (5) Vowel 6:

awoke\* awoke\* a: awake bear (carry) borne bore bear (to bring forth) bore broken brok**e** break sworn swore swear torn tore tear worn wore wear cloven\* é: cleave (split) clove\* frozen froze freeze shorn\* shore\* shear spoken spoke speak stolen stole steal woven wove weave abode abode : abide ú (00): choose chose
 There are also the companion weak forms: 'awaked, cleaved, cleft,

abeared'.

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p.p. 'understanden', 'understand', and 'understanded') and 'withstand' follow the simple verb. The 'n' in 'stand'—as in 'gang' (go), 'bring', &c.; Lat. findo, fundo, &c.—strengthens the present form; it is no part of the root.

#### (9) Vowel **ù**:

		ù	11
à:	hang	hung*	hung
	strik <b>e</b>	struck	struck
i:	dig	<b>d</b> ug <b>*</b>	dug*
	cling	clung	clung
	fling	$\mathbf{flung}$	flung
	sling	$\mathbf{slung}$	slung
	slink	$\mathbf{slunk}$	slunk
	$\mathbf{s}$ pin	spun /	spun
	stick	stuck	stuck
	sting '	$oldsymbol{stung}$	stung
	swing	swung	swung
	win	won	won
	wring * The 1	wrung parts marked thus (*) have also the weal	wrung c form.

'Hung', past, (O. E. heng), has been transferred to p.p.: the weak forms are more common for the sense of 'strangle'. 'Struck', O. E. and Scotch strac; O. E. p.p. stricen appears later as strucken, strooken, 'stricken', now 'struck'. We still usually say 'stricken in years', or 'stricken' with any disease or infirmity. 'Dig' and 'stick' were originally weak.

'Cling', 'fling', 'sling', &c., had a previous a in the past tense—'clang', 'flang', &c.; like the class in § 59, 3, (1), 'begin', &c. But the pasts are now for the most part resimilated to the participles. These have all lost the sen ending.

assimilated to the participles. These have all lost the -en ending.

#### (10) Diphthong ou:

40.5	ou	ou
f: bind	${f bound}$	bound
$\mathbf{find}$	found	found
$\mathbf{grind}$	ground	ground
wind	wound	wound

Like most of the above class, these four had originally a in the past ('band', 'fand', &c.) and u in the participle ('bunden', &c.), as in mod. Germ. 'Bounden' remains as an adj.: 'one's bounden duty'. Sir W. Scott, in 'his horn he wound' (Lady of the Lake) for 'winded', assimilates two different verbs.

59. 3. Some old verbs change in different ways both Past Tense and Past Participle.

(1) Vowels	à,	ù:
------------	----	----

	à	ù
i: begin	began	begun
drink	dran <b>k</b>	drunk
$\mathbf{r}$ ing	$\mathbf{r}$ ang	rung
shrin <b>k</b>	$\mathbf{shrank}$	shrunk
$\mathbf{sing}$	sang	sung
sink	<b>s</b> ank	sunk
$\mathbf{spring}$	sprang	sprung
stink	stank	stunk
swim	swam	swum

While the verbs in § 58, 2, (9) have mostly discarded a and taken up u in the past, the present verbs keep the original a and now prefer not to use the u, as they often did in the 16th and 17th centuries. (Compare the same verbs in German.) The participial -en has been lost, remaining only in a few cases, now adjectival: 'drunken', 'shrunken', 'sunken'.

#### (2) Vowels i, ù:

 $\dot{u}(0)$ : do  $\dot{d}$  done

'Did' (O.E. dide), as we have seen (§ 8), shows the original reduplication to form the past tense.

#### (3) Vowels 6, 1:

	ó	ì
i: arise	arose	<b>a</b> risen
- drive	${f drove}$	driven
${f ride}$	$\mathbf{rode}$	$\mathbf{r}$ idden
rise	rose	risen '
shriv <b>e</b>	shrove *	shriven *
smite	smote	${f smitten}$
${f stride}$	$\mathbf{strode}$	<b>stridden</b>
strive	strove	striven *
thrive	throve *	thriven *
write	wrote	written
* The parts m	arked thus (*) have also t	he weak form.

Most of these verbs have got their o from an original a (O.E. aras, draf, &c.), which appeared in drave, strave, &c., in the 16th and 17th centuries. Within the same period, shortened forms of the participle were often used—smit, writ, &c.; and were even transferred to the past tense (compare § 58, 2, (4)).

#### (4) Vowels ú, ó:

f: fly flow flow

'Flow' has given up this conjugation for the weak formation: 'flowed'. 'Flee', in like manner, has 'fled'.

## 60. 4. Some strong verbs have the same vowel throughout.

é: beatbeatbeatenè: letletleti: bidbidbidden, bidù: burstburstburst

The past 'beat' now takes the vowel of the present, and may be considered weak, but in O.E. it was beet, later bet. 'Let' had a weak past in the 12th century. For 'bid' see § 57, 1, (2). 'Burst' has been influenced throughout from the participle: O.E. berste (pres.) had past bearst, barst, or brast, and p. p. borsten, bursten.

## 61. 5. The following strong forms are incomplete. The verbs are nearly all also conjugated in weak forms.

heave wake	hove * woke *	(hafen, hove(n)) $(wacen)^*$
go	(O. E. eode, mod. E. went)	gone
en-grave	(grof, grove)*	en-graven
hew	(hcow, hew)*	hewn *
lade 3	(hlod, lod)*.	laden *
lose	(-leas)*	lorn *, forlorn
melt	(mealt, malt)*	molten*
mow	(meow, mew)*	mown *
rive	(rove)*	riven *
shape	(scop, shope)*	shapen *
shave	(scof, shove)*	shaven *
sow	(seow, sew)*	sown *
swell	(sweal, swal, swol)	swollen, swoln*
rot	See the Statement Statemen	rotten *
saw	@abstronerschen.engelennerschen.engen con	sawn*
show	@Dimensional Conference in August 1 (August 1	shown *
strew	Square-tu-versitation-police	strewn*
(be)	· · ·	been
(hate)	hight	hight
(cwethe)	quoth (cwæth)	(cwethen)
(wese)	was (wæs)	(wesen)
* The part	s marked thus (*) have also the	

'Hove' (O. E. hof) is now almost exclusively nautical: 'hove to', 'hove in sight'. 'Go' (O. E. inf. gangan, contracted gan; indic. ga) had an O. E. past geong, geng, long since disused, its place being now supplied by 'went', the past of the weak verb 'wend' (O. E. wendan, 'to turn', 'go'). An earlier substitute was eode, yode, the past of a lost weak verb from the root 'i' ('to go'). 'Lor(e)n', 'forlor(e)n', have turned s into r, a common change in language: they are for losen, forlosen (§ 58, 2, (5)). 'Molten', 'shaven', 'sown', 'rotten', &c., are only or chiefly used as adjectives: 'molten gold', 'shaven crown', &c. 'Rot', 'saw', 'show', 'strew', are weak verbs with the single strong formation of the participle. 'Been' supplies pres. indic. by 'am', and past by 'was'. 'Quoth' may be supplied from 'say', 'said'. 'Hight' originally is only past, but also took the place of haten, hoten (called): now archaic.

#### The Weak Conjugation.

62. The New or Weak Verbs form their past tense and past participle in -d (or -ed, or -t).

We have already seen (§ 8) that the ending of the past tense, -d (O. E. -de), is a modification of 'did', the reduplicated past of 'do'; and that the ending of the participle, though now of the same form, has a different origin.

Most usually the form -ed is written, though the -e is merely a connecting vowel seldom pronounced now. The pronunciation is influenced by the sounds immediately preceding, and, to agree with this, -t is sometimes written in place of -d or -ed.

#### 63. 1. The most common ending is -ed.

The insertion of the binding vowel is necessary in pronunciation when the simple verb ends in a dental -t or -d: 'plant, plant-ed'; 'proceed, proceed-ed'. In cases like 'cite.cit(e)-ed', 'rate, rate(e)-ed', 'precede, preced(e)-ed', the final -e of the simple verb is a mere device of spelling, which gives way before the inflexional ending or is utilized as connecting vowel. The binding vowel also appears in cases where it is not wanted for the usual pronunciation, and the addition of the ending is accompanied with some peculiarities of spelling, as in the plural of nouns, the comparison of adjectives and verbs, and the inflexion of second and third persons singular of verbs: 'love, loved', 'save, saved'. 'turn, turned', 'fell, felled', 'oppose, opposed', 'veto, veto-ed', 'sip, sip-p-ed', 'dig, dig-g-ed', 'carry, carr-i-ed'.

## 64. 2. In some cases, -d alone is added and the vowel of the simple verb is modified.

(1) With shortened vowel:

flee	${f fled}$	${f fled}$
hear	heard	heard
shoe	shod	$\mathbf{shod}$

(2) With lengthened vowel (è into 6):

sell	$\mathbf{sold}$	sold
tell	$\mathbf{told}$	told

'Sell', &c.: O. E. sellan, sealde, (ge)seald or sald. 'Tell', &c.: O. E. tellan, tealde, teald or tald. The e of the present and the o of the past are modifications of an original a.

(3) With change of spelling:

lay	laid	laid
pay	paid	paid
say	said	said
stay	staid*	staid*

'Lay', &c.: O. E. lecgan, 1st sing. pres. indic. lecge, later leye; past lecgde, legde, leyde; p. part. leyed, leyd. 'Say', &c.: O. E. secgan, indic. secge, seye; past sæyde, sæde, seide; p. part. sægd, sæd. 'Staid' is usually an adjective, or intransitive. 'Afraid' is originally the p. part. of 'affray', and was previously spelt 'affrayed'.

(4) With other change: 'clad', 'had', 'made'.

clothe	clad*	clad*
have	had	$\mathbf{had}$
make	made	made

Clothede or clethede, clethede, cledde, cled, 'clad'; on analogy of ledde, ladde, lad, 'led'. For 'had', see § 16. 'Make', &c.: O. E. macian, macode, macod · c falls out by the 13th century; Chaucer has p. p. both maked and maad.

#### 65. 3. Often -t is added for -d.

After a surd (sharp) consonant (p, f(v), k. s(z), and l, m, n), preceded by a short or shortened vowel:

p: creep	crept	crept
keep	kept	kept
leap	leapt*	leapt*
sleep	$\mathbf{slept}$	slept
sweep	swept	swept
weep	wept	$\mathbf{wept}$
•	•	

<sup>\*</sup> The parts marked thus (\*) have also the form in -ed.

dip	dipt*	dipt*
ship	shipt*	${f slipt}^{f *}$
stip	stript*	stript*
$\mathbf{whip}^{'}$	whipt*	whipt*
chop	chopt*	chopt*
$\mathbf{drop}$	dropt*	$\mathbf{dropt^*}$
lop	lopt*	lopt*
stop	stopt*	stopt*
&c.	,	&e.
f(v): bereave	bereft*	bereft*
cleave	cleft*	cleft*
loovo	loft	loft

'Puffed', 'stuffed', &c., are written, though we speak 'puft', stuft', &c.

k: 'crackt', 'lickt', 'lockt', &c., may be written, but the forms in -ed are the common ones.

s: pass	past*	past"
$\mathbf{\hat{b}less}$	$\mathbf{ar{b}lest}^{f *}$	blest*
press .	prest*	prest*
s(z): lose	lost	-lost

The verbs in -ss drop one s before -t; but this formation is not common. It is more frequent in poetry than in prose, as it represents the pronunciation to the eye.

l: deal	dĕalt	dĕalt
feel	felt	${f f}{f e}{f l}{f t}$
kneel	knelt	knelt
dwell	dwelt*	dwelt*
$\mathbf{smell}$	* smelt *	smelt*
$\mathbf{spell}$	$\mathbf{spelt}^{oldsymbol{*}}$	spelt *
spill ,	spilt *	, spilt *

One of the Is is dropt before -t.

m: dream	drĕamt 🗬	drěamt 🥞
n: lean	lĕant*	lĕant*
mean *	mĕant	<b>m</b> ĕan <b>t</b>
pen ( <i>shu<b>t)</b> learn</i>	pent*	pent
learn	learnt *	Īĕarnt *
burn	burnt *	burnt *

In O. E. such verbs as 'blanch', 'clench', 'drench', 'quench', 'singe', &c., left out the ch or g in the past tense and p. part.: 'blent, blent', 'cleynte, cleynt', &c., 'seynde, seynd', &c.

'Wont', as in 'he was wont', is the p. part. of the obsolete verb 'wone' (O. E. wunian), 'to dwell': hence 'wont' (part.)

<sup>\*</sup> The parts marked thus (\*) have also the form in -ed.

= 'in the habit (of)', and 'wont' (noun), 'habit', 'custom'. Sometimes 'wont' was used as a past tense, for 'was wont'. Also 'wonts' (— 'is accustomed'), and 'wonted' ('accustomed', 'usual'), p. part. as adjective.

#### (2) After vowel changed to $\bar{o}$ (au or ou):

au: catch caught\* caught\* teach taught

'Catch' has assimilated its forms to 'teach'. O. E. tæcan

(indic. tæce), tæhte, tæht.

We have also 'fraught' (for 'freighted'); and 'distraught' (for 'distracted')—O. E. streccan (indic. strecce: 'stretch') forming streate, streat. 'Reach' at one time had 'raught' (for 'reached').

ou: beseech	besought *	besought *
bring	brought	brought
buy	bought	bought
'seek	sought	sought
think	thought	thought
(me)thinks	(me)thought	Ü
work	wrought *	wrought *

- Beseech' is from 'seek', O. E. secan (indic. sece), sohte, soht. 'Bring' and 'think' have inserted a non-radical n: like 'stand', &c. (§ 58, 2, (8)). Besides brohte, broht, bringan had in O. E. also brang, brungen: like 'sing', &c. (§ 59, 3, (1)). Thencan had thohte, thoht. 'Methinks' (lit. '(to) me (it) seems') is cognate: O. E. thyneth, thuhte, thuht. 'Buy', &c.: O. E. byegan (indic. byege), bohte, boht. 'Work', &c.: O. E. wyrcan, worhte, worht.
- 66. 4. Final -d of the simple verb is sometimes changed to -t, when preceded by a liquid—n, l, or r. The liquid is also preceded by a short vowel.

1010 70 11 014		<i>*</i>
ènd : bend :	bent *	bent *
» blend	blent*	blent *
lend	lent *	lent*
rend	${f rent}$	rent
, <b>s</b> end	sent	sent
spend *	<b>s</b> pen <b>t</b>	spent
wend	went *	Spinore and the spinore of the spino
*Id: build	built*	built *
" gild	gilt *	gilt *
ird: gird	girt *	girt*
~	_	

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let	row	starve	wax
lie (tell lies)	rue	step	weep
lock	scathe	stint	weigh
lot (east lots)	shed (divide)	$\mathbf{suck}$	$\mathbf{w}$ el $\mathbf{I}$
lout (bow)	shove	sup	whoop
low	$\operatorname{sigh}$	swallow	$\mathbf{w}ield$
mete	sleep	sweep	worth (be)
milk	slip.	thrash	wreak
mourn	slit	throng	\forall wreathe \capstal
quell	smoke	tug (draw)	writhe
quenc <b>h</b>	sneak	wade (go)	yell
reap	spew	walk	yelp
reek	spurn	wash	yield

70. A few of the most common errors in the conjugation of the more irregular verbs, whether old or new, may be noted.

The chief misleading circumstance is that in the new verbs we are habituated to the identity of form of the past tense and the past participle, whence we are apt to apply the same rule to the old verbs. 'The letter was wrote (for written)'; 'the wine was drank (for drunk)'; 'he has broke (broken) the window'; 'I have much mistook your passion'; 'I have already chose (chosen) my officer'. 'I have struck' is now in use for the ancient form, 'I have stricken'. 'I had neither ate nor drank' should be 'eaten nor drunk'; 'and now the years a numerous train have ran' (for run).

There is a confusion between the verbs 'lay' and 'lie'. We often see such errors as 'the book lays (for lies) on the table';

'let it lay' (for lie).

In poetry especially there is a strong tendency to confound the past tense and the past participle: 'I begun' (for began), 'the latest minstrel sung'.

Technical language retains older forms: 'the charge was found proven' (the ordinary p. part. being 'proved').

#### DERIVATION.

#### SOURCES OF ENGLISH WORDS.

I. The English Vocabulary has drawn words from many languages; especially from Latin, directly or indirectly.

The Grammar of our language is exclusively

native.

In the early centuries of the Christian era, Britain was invaded from the country that now forms Denmark and the North-west of Germany by certain tribes under the names of Jutes, Angles, and Saxons. The year 449 is assigned as the date of the landing of the Jutes in the Isle of Thanet, in Kent, under Hengist and Horsa. Other invasions followed; and in the course of a hundred years the Jutes, Saxons, and Angles were established over the greater part of England. There were different dialects spoken among these several tribes, although they were closely allied to each other. The early compositions that have come down to us nearly all exemplify one dialect—the dialect of the western counties. A few fragments illustrate the dialectical peculiarities of the counties of the North. In the midland counties there was yet a third dialect; and from this the modern English of literature has more directly descended.

As the Angles or English established the political superiority of their name, so the common term for the language of the Teutonic conquerors was English. Taking together the contributions of all the united tribes, we assume these as the basis of the present English tongue.

The other great element is the Roman, by which is meant the aggregate of English words drawn from the Latin language, but derived by us for the most part through the French. The early English and Latin together constitute the mass of our vocabulary.

The remaining constituents are: words from languages belonging to the common stock called Teutonic, of which English is a member—Dutch, German, and Scandinavian; words from the Keltic languages spoken in Britain before the English conquest—Welsh and Gaelic; words from the Greek; and words from the languages of distant countries connected with us by colonisation, trade, &c.

- 2. The Classical element of our language, by which is meant the Latin, together with the Greek, was introduced at different periods.
- 3. I. During the Roman occupation of the island, between A.D. 43 and A.D. 410.

The words that remain from this period are chiefly local names connected with military stations.

Castra (a camp) gives 'Lancaster', 'Gloucester', 'Winchester', 'Exeter', &c.

Colonia (a Roman settlement): 'Lincoln'.

Fossa (a trench): 'Hincoln'.

Fossa (a trench): 'Fossway', 'Fosbrook', 'Fossbury'.

Portus (a harbour): 'port', 'Portsmouth', 'Porchester'.

Strata (paved road): 'Stratford', 'Streatham', 'street', &c.

Vallum (a palisaded rampart): 'bailiff', 'Old Bailey', 'Wallbury'.

4. II. During the four centuries following the introduction of Christianity, A.D. 596.

The contributions during this interval include many words of a religious character, and the names of institutions and natural productions introduced by the missionaries.

Eccles	ASTICAL.	Latin.			
altar	cowl	disciple	mass	pall	saint
chalice	$\mathbf{creed}$	feast	offe <b>r</b>	porch	shrine
cloister	cross	font	pagan	preach	sacrament
Greek.				-	
alms	bishop	clerk	hymn	$\mathbf{monk}$	<b>psalter</b>
jangel	canon	deacon	martyr	$\mathbf{priest}$	stole
apostle	church	heretic	minister	psalm	$\operatorname{\mathbf{synod}}$
	AL OBJECT	rs. Latin.		,	•
beet	$\mathbf{fig}$		$\mathbf{millet}$	pine	
"box	laur	el	$\mathbf{mule}$	$\mathbf{pum}$	ice 🗎
$\operatorname{cedar}$	letti	1 <b>ce</b>	oyster	rue	
chalk	lily		$\mathbf{palm}$	tige	
cherry	lion		pard	trou	
cucumber			$ ext{pea-}cock$	turt	
${f elm}$	mar	ble	pearl	vult	ure
Greek.		_		•	_
agate		crystal		phœnix	_
anise		hellebore		sponge	
$\mathbf{camel}$		myrrh		sycamore	•

MISCELLA	NEOUS. La	tin.	Er.	*	69
acid anchor ark axle belt bench bile candle capital  Greek.	chancellor chest circle city cook coulter crisp crest crown	ell empire fever fork gem grade mile mortar muscle	nurse ounce palace plant plume pound prone provost purple	rule sack senate spade table temple title tunic verse	:
cymbal cymbal epistle giant	ţ •	metre philosopher plaster	ŧ	rheum school theatre	

The words 'baptize', 'synagogue', 'disciple', 'resurrection', 'parable', 'repentance', and many others superseded names of native origin for the same things.

5. III. The great accession of Latin words took place subsequent to the Norman Conquest, forming what is called the Norman-French element of our Language.\*

The Normans gave the names pertaining to feudal-

 <sup>&#</sup>x27;The Normans were originally Scandinavians, who settled in France as their brethren had done in England. In 912, Charles III. ceded to them the province called Normandy after them. Here they came into contact with a people speaking a language derived from the Latin, and. like the Franks and the other barbarian invaders of Gaul, Italy, and Spain, they gradually ceased to use their own Scandinavian tongue, and adopted the language spoken by the inhabitants of their new home. This language has obtained the name of French, from the Franks, who conquered Gaul in the fifth century, and, like the Italian, Spanish, and other languages derived from the Latin, is frequently called a Romance language, to commemorate its Roman origin. The first introduction of French into England dates from the time of the later Saxon kings. Ethelred II. married Emma, daughter of Richard, Duke of Normandy; and his son, Edward the Confessor, who was brought up at the Norman court, and spoke the French language, gave great offence to his English subjects by his partiality for this tongue, and by his introducing French ecclesiastics into the kingdom. But the important event, which firmly planted the French language in England, was the conquest of the country by William, Duke of Normandy, in the year 1066. For two centuries French was the language of the English court; Norman settlers, speaking French, were spread over the country, and filled all settlers, speaking French, were spread over the country, and filled all the ecclesiastical and civil posts; and French was spoken in the courts of law and taught in the schools. In this way a large mass of the population must have become acquainted with French; and a very great number of French words was gradually introduced into the English language '.—(Marsh's Lectures, II.)

## ism, war, law, and the chase, as well as additions to the general vocabulary.

Feudalism	and war.			
aid	buckle <b>r</b>	guardian	mail	trumpet
armour	castle	hauberk	peer	truncheon
array	champion	harness	relief	vassal
assault	chivalry	$\mathbf{herald}$	scutage	vizo <b>r</b>
banner	dower	homage	${f scutcheon}$	war
baron .	esqui <b>re</b>	joust	tallage	ward
battle	fealty	lance	tenant	warden
Law.	•		İ	Į
advocate	case	" felony	paramount	statute
approver	contract	$\mathbf{j}$ udge	plaint	sue
arrest	estate	justice		. suit
assize	fee	larceny	sentence	<b>s</b> uret <b>y</b>
The Chase.		_		_
bay	couple (v),	${f forest}$	quarry	tiercel
brace	covert	leash	reclaim	venison
chase	falconer	$\mathbf{mew}$	$\mathbf{sport}$	<b>v</b> erder <b>e</b> r

But in addition to the names on these special subjects, many hundreds, if not thousands, of words of French origin were incorporated with the *general vocabulary* in the course of three or four centuries. In Layamon, in Chaucer, in Wycliffe, the

acquisition of French words is seen going on.

Few words seem to have been derived at this period from the Latin directly. It cannot, however, in all cases be known whether words from the Latin have passed through the French; but nouns in 'our' (ardour), 'ier' (cavalier), 'chre' (sepulchre), 'eer' (auctioneer), adjectives in 'que' (unique), and words beginning with 'counter', 'pur', and 'sur' (counteract, purpose, surprise), are of this class. And, generally speaking, when words of classical origin are greatly altered in the English spelling, they have not come directly from the Latin; as 'reason' (Fr. raison, Lat. rationem), 'journal' (Fr. journal, Lat. diurnalis), 'ally' (Fr. allier, Lat. allegare), 'accomplice' (Fr. complice, Lat. complex), 'beauty' (Fr. beaute, Lat. bellus), 'obey' (Fr. obéir, Lat. obedire, from audire).\*

6. IV. After the Revival of Learning, many words were taken directly from the Latin, and a smaller number from the Greek.

The greater number of words bearing evidence of being obtained directly from the Latin, have been introduced since the revival of letters in the beginning of the sixteenth century.

<sup>\*</sup> Angus on the English Language, p, 16.

A few are selected by way of specimen:-

abdicate	adhere	beatify	cardinal	cogitate
abhor	admire	benevolence	case	command
abject	adopt	biennal	cause	council
abjure	affirm	$\mathbf{biped}$	celebrate	commit
abnegate	agent		celestial	common
abominate	aggravate	callous	chain	compassion
absent	alacrity	camp	chance	complacent
accelerate	allocate	cant	charity	compose *
accede	<b>al</b> ternate	capilla <b>ry</b>	circumference	
address	announce	carbon	circle	confess, &c.

Our abstract nouns ending in y and ion—a pretty numerous class—are very slightly altered from the Latin original: 'calamity' (calamita-tem); 'compassion' (compassio-nem). They follow the forms of the earlier derivation of these through French.

The diffusion of Latin words in English is most comprehensively seen by examining a list of Latin roots, and noting their respective prevalence in the language. The following are a few of the best known:—

Verbs:				
ago	fac <b>io</b>	pend <b>eo</b>	<b>s</b> cribo	<b>t</b> ango
cado	fero	plico	<b>s</b> entió	$\mathbf{tendo}$
cerno	gen•	$\bar{p}ono$	<b>s</b> eq <b>uor</b>	teneo
claudo	habe <b>o</b>	porto	servo	traho
$\mathbf{credo}$	<b>j</b> ace <b>o</b>	premo	solvo	${f v}$ enio
curro	jungo	$\bar{p}robo$	$\mathbf{specio}$	verto
dico	lego	pungo	spir <b>o</b>	<b>vi</b> de <b>o</b>
do	levo	puto	statu <b>o</b>	voco
duco	mitto	quæro	sto	volvo
eo	moneo	rego	struo	
esse	nascor	salio	sumo	
Nouns:				_
anima	cura	jus	munus	signum
caput	forma	lex	nomen	tempus
cor	gratia	manus	<b>pars</b>	testis
Adjectives:			ž.	_
æquus	firmus		magnus	primus
alter	fortis		malus	similis
bonus	gravis		medius	unus
	_		_	

The number of Greek roots is smaller, but some of them are fruitful of compounds. Conspicuous examples are:

ago (to lead)	demos (the people)	logos (speech)
archo (to begin)	grapho (to write)	ōdē (a song)
cyclos (a circle)	hudor (water)	pan (all)

pathos (feeling) polis (a city) tithemi (to place) phaino (to show, appoieo (to make) pear) scopeo (to see) zoon (an animal) phileo (to love) techne (art) &c.

Of the words derived from these roots, the following are a few examples:—demagogue, archæology, hydrography, cyclopædia, melody, pantheon, sympathy, phenomenon, telescope, technical, hypothesis, topography, zoology.

'The importance of these roots may be seen from the fact that from pono and positum we have in English two hundred and fifty words; from plico, two hundred; from fero and latum, one hundred and ninety-eight; from specio, one hundred and seventy-seven; from mitto and missum, one hundred and seventy-four; from tenec and tentum, one hundred and sixty-eight; from capio and captum, one hundred and ninety-seven; from tendo and tensum, one hundred and sixty-two; from duco and ductum, one hundred and fifty-six. Logos gives us one hundred and fifty-six; graphein, one hundred and fifty-two. These twelve words, therefore, enter into the composition of nearly two thousand five hundred English words. One hundred and fifty-four Greek and Latin primitives yield nearly thirteen thousand words.'- (Angus, English Language, p. 46.)

A great many Latin and Greek words are still imperfectly incorporated in the language. All the nouns that make the plural according to classical forms, and not according to the English form, are of this kind.

The demands of science, and even of industry and the common arts, lead to the unceasing introduction of new classical words: telegraph, microphone, telephone, bicycle, photography, locomotive, terminus, caloric, basic, colloid, aeronaut, diagnosis, amalgam, cataclysm, onomatopæia, &c.

It would form a useful exercise to note and compare words that have come directly, and words that have come indirectly through French, from Latin or Greek. For example: 'aggravate, aggrieve': 'benediction, benison'; 'blaspheme, blame'; 'captive, caitiff'; 'diurnal, journal'; 'fact, feat'; 'faction, fashion'; 'fragile, frail'; 'gaud, jewel, joy'; 'juncture, jointure'; 'loyal, royal, legal, regal'; 'major, mayor'; 'nutriment, nourishment'; 'phantasy, fancy'; 'pedestrian, pioneer'; 'providence, purveyance, prudence'; 'sequel, suit'; 'species, spice'; 'superficies, surface'; 'supreme, sovereign'; 'tradition, treason'; &c.

7. Keltic dialects existed at an early period, and still partly exist in Britain.

The Keltic dialects now remaining are the Welsh, Gaelic, Manx, and Irish.

One large class of names derived from them are names of places.

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Esk (water, current): Esker, Esthwaite, Ashbourne, Easeburn, Isis. (See also above: Rivers.)

Fell (hill): Carterfell, Scafell, Snæfell.

Garw (rough): Garry, Yarrow.

Glen, glyn (narrow valley): Glencoe, Glenshee, Glynneath.

Gorm (blue): Cairngorm.

Gwent (plain): Nantglyn, Winchester.

Inch, Ennis (island): Inchcolm, Inchkeith, Enniskillen.

Inver (mouth of river, land fit for tillage): Inverness.

Ken, Kin (head): Kenmare, Kenmore, Kent, Kinnaird, Kinross, Cantire.

Kill (cell, chapel, burying-ground): Kilmarnock, Kilsyth,

Icolmkill.

Lin (deep pool): Linlithgow, Dublin, Roslin.

Lis (mound): Lismore.

Llann (church): Llandaff.

Magh (plain): Maynooth, Armagh.

Mor (great): Benmore.

Mor (sea): Moray, Glamorgan

Rath (mound): Rathlin.

Rin (point): Penrhyn, Rins (of Galloway).

Ros (promontory): Ross, Kinross, Melrose, Roseneath.

Strath (broad valley): Strathmore, Strathspey.

"am (spreading, broad): Tamar, Thames.

? (town): Coventry, Oswestry.

.y (water): Conway, Medway, Solway.\*

The words in the general vocabulary derived from the Keltic dialects are given in the Appendix I.

8. Our intercourse with the Danes and other northern nations has brought us a considerable number of Scandinavian words.

These are chiefly names of places and of persons.

The Scandinavian nations are the Icelanders, Danes, Norwegians, and Swedes. The oldest Scandinavian language is the Old Norse of Norway, now spoken with little alteration in Iceland. The Danish invasions of Great Britain have left us a number of Scandinavian words. In the counties north of the Wash and the Mersey many of the names of places are from this source.

<sup>\*</sup> Angus on the English Language, p. 18. See also Chambers's Exercises. in Etymology.

A, ay, ea, ey, oe (island): Staffa, Cumbray, Chelsea, Anglesey, Orkney, Faroe.

A, ea, ey (water, river): Greta, Waveney. Ark (temple): Arkholm.

Beck, batch (brook): Caldbeck, Wansbeck, Snailbatch. Brek (steep): Norbrek.

By (Norse byr, farm, village): Derby, Grimsby, Netherbyres, Netherby.

Dale (valley): Borrowdale, Tweeddale, Arundel.

Dan (Dane): Danby.

Den, Dean (hollow valley): Hawthornden, Tenterden, Southdean.

Ding, thing (meeting-place): Dingwall. Fiord (inlet): Milford, Seaford, Waterford.

Fleet (flood): Ebbsfleet, Northfleet, Purfleet.

Force (fors, a waterfall): Mickleforce.

Garth (yard, enclosure): Applegarth, Dalegarth, Drumgarth.

Gate (passage, way): Gallowgate, Margate, Reigate.

Gil (narrow cleft in side of valley): Ormesgill. Frequent. in Iceland.

Holm (island in lake or river; plain near river): Arkholm, Flatholm, Langholm.

Kell (spring): Kelby.

Kirk (church): Laurencekirk, Ladykirk. Lax (salmon): Laxay, Laxford, Laxweir.

Ness (headland): Bowness, Caithness.

Scale (shealing): Portinscale, Shields, Galashiels.

Scar (cliff): Scarborough, the Skerries.

Scaw (wood): Scawfell

Skip (ship): Skipwith, Skipton.

Ster (place): Lybster, Ulbster, Ulster.

Suther (south): Sutherland.

Tarn (mountain lake): Tarnsyke.

Thorpe. Throp (village): Ravensthorpe, Woolthorpe, Heythrop.

Thwaite (piece of land): Crosthwaite.

Toft (small field): Lowestoft.

Wick, wig, wich (Norse vik, creek, bay): Ipswich, Sandwich.

With (wood): Langwith.

The termination 'son' appended to names is Norse: 'Swainson', 'Ericson'. 'Ulf' or 'Ulph', found in proper names, is Norse for 'wolf'

The Scandinavian words in the general vocabulary are given: in the Appendix II.

9. Various other members of the Teutonic stock of languages (to which English belongs) have contributed words to the English vocabulary.

It happens that a certain number of English words are not found in early English writings, but occur in Dutch, German, Flemish, &c. We thence infer that such words have been derived from those languages, although it is also possible that they may have existed in ancient English dialects, as speken, if not as written, or that they may belong in origin to a period when English and these other languages had not yet branched off from the common stock. We do not know the history of the actual introduction of all our foreign words.

The words derived from the other Teutonic languages are

given in the Appendix III.

or less perfectly assimilated, have reference to various subjects:

#### 。War:

aide-de-camp	émeut <b>e</b>	matériel	retrea <b>t</b>
bayonet	epaulet	mêlée	reveill <b>e</b>
bivouac	fusée	mitrailleuse	ruse
casern	glacis	$\mathbf{mobilise}$	scarp
chevalier	hors-de-combat	parley	sortie
cordon .	intern	parole	squad
corps	manœuvre	picquet	tirade
élan	marque (lettre de)	redan	tirailleu <b>r</b>

#### Literature, art, and affairs:

	·, ·, ·	1 C	
aperçu	critique	laissez faire	programme
attaché	cue	mise-en-scène	rédaction
ballet	début	naïveté	régime
belles lettres	dénouement	nom de plume	renaissance
brochure	doctrinaire	parliament -	resum <b>é</b>
burea <b>u</b>	encore	parvenu	rôle
clef	esprit .	nergiflage	rondea <b>u</b>
clique	façade	personnel	routine
connoisseur	feuilleton	portfolio	savant
coup d'état	finesse	portrait	tapis
coupon	hautboy	pourparle <b>r</b>	troubadour
	jeu d'esprit	précis	vers de société

#### Fashion, manners, and pleasure:

alamode	badinage	billet-doux	blase
amende honorable	beau—belle	bizarre	bonbon

bonhomie	croquet	fête	rechauffé
bonne	distingué	foible	recherché
boudoir	eau de Cologne	mésalliance	roué
bouquet	éclat	millionaire	<b>r</b> oulea <b>u</b>
brusque	élite .	le beau monde	sangfroid
carte	ennu <b>i</b>	nonchalance	soirée
chaise	entrée	outré	ton
congé	etiquett <b>e</b>	pas	<b>v</b> ale <b>t</b>

#### Dress:

${f blonde}$	chignon	crochet	$\mathbf{modiste}$	queue (cue)
blouse	coif	deshabill <b>e</b>	$\mathbf{m}$ oire	rouge
bonnet	<b>c</b> oiffur <b>e</b>	fichu	paleto <b>t</b>	surtout
busk	crinoline	${f golosh}$	pelisse	trousseau

Cookery: biscuit, déjeûner, entrées, entremêts, fricassée, goût, menu, omelet, ragoût.

#### Miscellaneous:

accouchement	crèche	éclat	rapport
apropos	cul de sac	entourag <b>e</b>	réverie
cafe	<b>d</b> éb <b>ris</b>	fracas	soi-disant
canard	dépôt	<i>immortelles</i>	souvenir
chagri <b>n</b>	dernier ressort	lieu	tête-à-tête
chateau	devoir	penchant	tic-douloureux
chef	douceur	prestige	vis-à-vis
cortege	douche	protégé	<b>v</b> ogue

11. Italian has contributed words relating to music, sculpture, and painting, with some miscellaneous words.

akimbo	brigand	carmine
alert	brigantine	carnival
allegro	brocade	$\mathbf{c}$ artel
alto	broccoli	cartoon
arquebuse	bronze	casino
askance	br <b>ush</b>	cassock
askant	bubble	castle
attitude	burlesq <b>ue</b>	<b>c</b> harla <b>tan</b>
avast	buzz ¯	<b>c</b> icerone
ballad	cameo	$\mathbf{c}$ itadel
bandit	<b>c</b> anno <b>n</b>	<b>company</b>
banquet	<b>c</b> antee <b>n</b>	companion
bass	cape	<b>c</b> oncei <b>t</b>
bassoon	caper	concert
bigot	<b>c</b> aptai <b>n</b>	cosset
boa	caravel (a kind of	cozen
bra <b>vo</b>	ship)	crate
breve	caricature	crypt

cuff (blow)	amaka /wawal		
	grate (noun)	;	pigeon
cupola	grime		pilgrim
curry (dress leather)	~		pistol
cutlass	grotesque		policy (insurance)
curtal (axe)	group		. porcupine
despatch t	harlequi <b>n</b>		portico
dilettaute	hazard	. •	profile *
dimity	indigo	Ç	punch (stage puppet)
ditto	<b>i</b> nveigl <b>e</b>		purl (edging for lace)
domino	invoice	_	puttock,
drain	list (catalogue)	•	regatta ,
embrocation .	lupines	,	scaramouch
ferret . 3	lurch		sketch
fib	luscious		soprano
fit (an attack of pain)			stanza:
folio	madrigal		stiletto
freak (whim)	mere (adj.)		stucco
gabion	mongrel		, studio
gallant	motto	•	tenor
gambado	nun	•	
gambaqo			terra-cotta
garnet	opera		torso
gazette	paladin		umbrella
gondola	palette		virtuoso
gorge	parapet	7	vista
granite '	parasol	•	volcano,
grapple	pedestal		zany

#### 12. Spanish:

alcove castanets fumadoes alligator cigar gabardine almond `clarion gala Í armada cochineal galleon armadillo 'cockatrice garbage barilla garble cork battledore corridor .grande**e** bezel (basil) F -corsair hidalgo crab (a windlass) booby 'jade javeli**n** desperado borachio Ś jennet bustard <sup>)</sup>discard junta—junto <sup>‡</sup> dismay calabash calenture 'don lawn (cloth) 'embargo levant (v.) caparison embarras**s** capon maroon 'molasses filigree caracol cargo filibuste**r** mosquito mulatto cask (casket, casque) flotilla

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negro	pickaroo <u>n</u>	pounce (the talon of
ninny	pillion	a bird of prey)
pail	pint	punctilio
pamphlet	plate (vessels of gold	savannah
pawn (chess man)	and silver)	sherry
peccadillo	potato	tornado

#### 13. Portuguese:-

caste 🏸 🕓	fetish *	porcelain
cocoa	mandarin	palaver
commodore	marmalade	verandah

14. The following words are traced to the Walloon, a dialect poken in some districts in the north-east of France and in Belgium: fester, funk, harridan.

#### 15. Swiss:—

daw	dismal	fetlock	glimpse	haggle	mart
		20110012	gumbae	maggra	mari

#### 16. Turkish:—

bey	candy	horde	salep î
bosh	carviare	janizary	seraglio
caftan	chouse	khan	shagreen (leather)
caique	divan	odalisque	simmer

#### 17. Arabic:

admiral	attar (otto)	fakir	minaret -	shrub .
alchemy	azimuth	felucca	moonshee	
alcohol	borax	firman	moslem -	simoom
alcove	_		— <del></del>	sirocco '
	cadi	gazelle	mosque:	sofa
alembic	caliph	giraffe .	mufti	sultan
algebrá	camphor	harem	mummy	syrup
alkali	carat	hegira	nadir	tabor
almanac	chemistry	jar (bottle)	naphtha	talisman
amber	cipher	julep ,	nard	tamarind 1
amulet	civet '	koran (		
_		_	rice	tambourine'
arrack	coffee	lemon	saffron	tare
arsenal	cotton	lute	salaam	tariff
artichoke .	dragoman	magazine	sandal (wood)	vizier
asa(fœtida)	elixir	mameluke	sheik	zenith
assassin	emir (	mattress	sherbet (drink)	•
	CAME	TITO DE COO	enerner (mmr)	zero

#### 18. Hebrew:-

abbey	cherub	hosann <b>a</b>	<b>s</b> abbath
abbot	* cinnamo <b>n</b>	jubilee	sapphire
amen !	${f e}{f p}{f h}{f o}{f d}$	~leviathan	seraph
behemo <b>th</b>	* gehenna	manna	<b>s</b> hekel
cabal	hallelujah 🕝	pharisee	shibboleth

#### 19. Persian:

azure	chess	kaffir	<b>s</b> ash
backsheesh	curry	lac (resinous	satrap
balcony	dervis <b>e</b>	substance)	scimita <b>r</b>
barbican	$\mathbf{e}\mathbf{m}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{r}\mathbf{a}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{d}$	lilac	shawl
bashaw	hookah	musk	<b>ta</b> ffe <b>ta</b>
bazaar	$\mathbf{howdah}$	orang <b>e</b>	tiffin
caravan	<b>j</b> ackal	pasha	tulip
check-mate	<b>j</b> asmin	saraband	turba <b>n</b>

#### . 20. Hindu:-

banian	coolie	muslin	rajah
betel	<b>c</b> owri <b>e</b>	nabob	rupee
buggy	jungle	pagoda	sepoy
bungalow	lac (100,000 rupees)	palanquin	shampoo
calico	lascar	pariah	sugar
cassowary	loot	punch	suttee
chintz	mullagatawn <b>y</b>	pundit	toddy

#### 21. Malay:-

a-muck	cajeput .	mango *	sago
bamboo	gamboge (Cambodia)	mangrove	creese
bantam (Java)	gingham (Java)	orang-outang	dugong

#### 22. Chinese:

bohea	congou	$\mathbf{hyson}$	pekoe	taal
caddy	gong	naukeen	satin	tea

#### 23. Polynesian:

taboo	kangaroo
	taboo

#### 24. American:

alpaca	hurricane	mocassin	tomahawk
cannibal	jerked (beef) (Chili)	pampas	tomato
canoe	jaguar (Braz.)	skunk	wampum
cayman	jalap (Mex.)	squaw	wigwam
caoutchouc	lama	tapioca	yam
condor	mahogan <b>y</b>	tapir	•
hammock	maize	tobacco	

#### 25. Names of Persons:-

braggadocio	hermetic	orrery	simon <b>y</b>
cinchona	lazaretto	ottoman	spencer
davy (safety lamp)		pander	stentoria <b>n</b>
galvanism	macintosh	<b>p</b> hilippic	tantalize
herculean	maudlin	quixotic	* &c.

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humoursome, juicy, falsehood, subscriber, martyrdom, suretiship, monkish.

English words with Classical endings:—shepherdess, songstress, wondrous, witticism, furtherance, behaviour, withdrawal, bearable.

## 31. IV. Most words with distinctive English prefixes are of home make.

Some of the prefixes, however, are ambiguous. Thus 'a' and 'in' are English, Latin, and Greek; 'mis' is English and Latin. But where there is no ambiguity, we may presume that an English prefix betokens an English word, and a classical prefix a classical word.

The unmistakable English prefixes are: 'al', 'after', 'be', 'for', 'ful', 'on', 'over', 'out', 'under', 'up', 'with'.

When we find words commencing with the prefixes 'circum', 'contra', 'extra', 'inter', 'ob', 'omni', 'præ', 'pro', 're', 'retro', 'super', we may almost always take for granted that they are of Latin origin: when we find 'cata', 'epi', 'hyper', 'hypo', 'pan', 'peri', 'sym', we may infer a Greek origin. Some of these are in hardly any case joined with English roots.

There are a good many exceptions, or hybrids. The following are a few:—because, belabour, besiege, out-face, prewarn, sublet, superfine, thorough-bass, thorough-paced, unchain,

unjust.

When we meet with such compounds as 'graceful', 'peaceful', we ought also to take notice that these roots—'grace', 'peace', are far more frequently allied with classical prefixes and endings; as 'gracious', 'ingratitude', 'ingratiate', 'gratify', 'pacify', 'appease'. If it is the habit of any word to contract classical alliances, we may presume that it is classical, unless it is recognised as a hybrid.

## 32. V. Most words of one syllable are native English or Teutonic.

The list of exceptions, that is to say, of words of one syllable derived from the Latin, French, or Greek, is given in the Appendix IV.

## 33. VI. Most words of more than one syllable are of classical origin.

The words of more than one syllable of native origin almost all occur in the following illustrations of the things denoted by native names. (§§ 35 and following.) A few not otherwise

mentioned are here subjoined:—behalf, behest, biestings, brustle, caltrop, chafer, commark (a frontier), dimple, dwindle, harbinger, hobnob, holster, nether, slobber, snattock, staddle, utter.

34. VII. Provincial terms are to be assumed as not of classical origin.

If not English, they are either Keltic or Teutonic.

- 35. The things denoted by native terms are to a great extent distinct from those denoted by names of classical origin.
- 36. I. From native sources we obtain the names connected with kindred, home, domestic life, and the strong natural feelings and their expression:—

father	gaffer	swaddle	pillow	midwife
mother	gammer	kettle	bolster	$\mathbf{mingle}$
husband	home <sup>-</sup>	bellows	bundle	naked
wife	hearth	kitchen	slumber	early
friend	roof	oven	taper	morrow
kindred	fireside	hovel	marrow	errand
leman (sweet-	shelter	threshold	tidbit	sunder,
heart)	ashes	tongs	wallet	bottom
widow	embers	ladle	wassail	lumber
neighbour	smoulder	flagon	fiddle	besom
henchman	bed	ewer	welcome	gossip
carle	cradle	bucket	token	riddle

#### attire:

hat	tippet	drawers	$\mathbf{w} \mathbf{e} \mathbf{d} \mathbf{s}$
shirt	<ul><li>breeches</li></ul>	<b>s</b> tockings	${f shoes}$
feelings:			
harm (lit. g	rief) wonder	smile	groan
hunger	weary	blain	weep
sorrow	bitter	blush	yearn
anger	tear	laugh	burden

37. II. From the same source are derived the names of the familiar objects of sense, and the familiar movements of moving things:—

#### Natural Objects, &c., Plants and Animals:

sun	morass	hollyhock	godwit
moon	stream	ivy	goose
star	land	kernel	hen
welkin	sea.	linden	herring
world	billo <b>w</b>	$\mathbf{medlar}$	hornet
fire	$\mathbf{e} \mathbf{d} \mathbf{d} \mathbf{y}$	misletoe	laverock
water	eart <b>h</b>	mugwort	linnet
day	dingle	nettle	lobster
night	mildew	poppy	louse
morn	brimstone	sallow	maggot
even .	iron	sorrel	marten
twilight	silver	teasel	mouldwarp (a mole)
light	pearl	thistle	mouse
heat	pebbl <b>e</b>	turnip	otter
cold	acorn	walnut	ousel (a blackbird)
rain	aspen	willow	owlet
snow	apple	yarrow	oyster .
storm	barley	adder	peacock
wind	berry	barnacl <b>e</b>	periwinkle (whelk)
thaw	bramble	beaver .	raven
frost	blade	beetle	reindeer
cloud	blossom	chafer	ruddock (a redbreast)
shower	briar	chicken	sparrow
thunder	bristle	cockle	starling
lightning	cluster	culver (a dove)	swallow '
weather	daisy	duck .	tadpole
summer	elder	enimet	throstle (the thrush)
winter	$\mathbf{elm}$	eyry	turtle
harvest	fennel	feather	weasel
hill	hemlock	fish	weevil (an insect)
dale ·	honey	fowl	whelk
wood	holly	fox	worm
11 000	2.011		** ************************************

#### Names of parts of the body:

body	whiskers	elbow	sinew
head	throat	finger	shank
ear i	lungs	knuckle	pimple
eye .	weasand (the		wrinkle
tongue	windpipe)	liver	tetter (a scab)
$\mathbf{neck}$	bosom	navel	sight
lip chin	nipple	belly ·	touch
chin	heel	bladde <b>r</b>	taste :
$\lim \mathbf{b}$	ham	thumb	heart
hair	hand	ankle	$\mathbf{s}\mathbf{m}\mathbf{e}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{l}$
nail	shoulder	bone	flesh

#### Familiar actions:

answer	hearke <b>n</b>	$\mathbf{fly}$	straddle
behave	hinder	swim	straggle
bluster	leap	creep	swallow
burrow	learn	crawl	trundle
clip	linger	hobbl <b>e</b>	tumble
deñ <b>le</b>	listen	follow	twinkle (with
elope	<b>r</b> impl <b>e</b>	bellow	the eyes)
fall	rinse	hollo	$\mathbf{w}$ ande $\mathbf{r}$
fell	rumple	jabber	$\mathbf{welter}$
fold	sit	snivel	wheeze
gather	stand	<b>s</b> tammer	whiff
gibber	${f lie}$	<b>w</b> hisper	whimper
giggle	walk	whig	whip -
glisten	run	whoop	whir
glitter	leap	scatter	whirl
gripe	stagge <b>r</b>	scuffile	whisk
grope	stride	shuffle	whittle
handle	yawn	smother	worry
hang	gape	spatter	wrangle
harry	wink	<b>s</b> prinkle	wrestle
07 1	7	* ~	

#### Obvious qualities:

barren black blue brinded (streaked) brittle broad	callow comely dingy dwindle even garish	gnarled grisly grim handsom <b>e</b> hard heavy	lukewarm narrow pretty rough sallow uncouth
buxom	ghastly	lean	white

#### A few of the mental habits and characteristics:

bold	earnest		$\mathbf{greedy}$	silly
busy	fickle	6	haggard	sulk <b>y</b> "
chary	frolic		idle	surly
cunning	${f froward}$	*	leasing (lies)	stalwar <b>t</b>
dizzy	fulsom <b>e</b>		merry	wheedl <b>e</b>
doughty	$\mathbf{giddy}$		nimble	wicked

But for states of the mind that have not a strong outward expression, the native vocabulary is very scantily supplied; such as the various modes of thought and intelligence. 'Think', 'mind', 'believe', 'trust', and a few others are to be found, but the great mass of words for the mental operations are of classical origin.

This rule may be otherwise expressed by saying that the names of the objective world are, by preference, native; of

the subjective world, by preference, classical.

## 38. III. The kinds of Industry practised by our ancestors are shown by the names that have come down to us.

```
Thus in agriculture and its allied operations:
                             hedge
              farm
acre
              farrow (litter heifer
                                            sow (n. and v.)
bacon
barm
                 of pigs)
                             hen
                                            steer
                                            stirrup
barn
                             horse
              fen
                                           tallow
barrow
              fern
                             hurdle
              field
                             loaf
boar
                                            tame
braird
              fodder
                                            thrash
                             mare.
bread
                             mattock
                                            twibill
              furrow
            gander
bridle
                             meadow
                                            udder
bull
              garlic
                             nettle.
                                            waggon
calf
                             orchard
              goose
                                            wattle
clover
                                           .weed
              grass
                             OX
cock
              grow
                             pig
                                            wether
                           , plough
cow
              halter
                                            wheat.
                                            whelp.
corn
              harrow
                             rat
                                            whey
              haulm
                             reap
ear (v and n) haw
                             runner
                                            winnow
fallow
                             saddle
                                            wither
              hay
  In the other industrial arts:
addice (adze) ferry
                             needle
                                                   staple
angle (to fish) furlong
                             oakum
                                                  swivel
anvil
              habergeon
                             peat
                                                  target
              hammer
                             pier
                                                  timber
arrow
                             raddle (to twist)
board L
              harbour
                                                  tower
                             riddle (sieve)
boat
              haven
                                                   turf
              hauberk
                             scavenger
coal
                                                   wear.
cobble (a boat) ladder
                             sempster
                                                  weave
distaff
                             shackle
              leather
                                                   web
                             shuttle
              level
                                                   wharf
earn
                             slaughter
              madder
                                                   wheel
fathom.
                             shambles
elly
```

Bearing more particularly upon trade and commerce: borrow, buy, chapman, cheap, dear, firkin, handsel, narket, monger, farthing, pedlar, penny, shilling, reckon, sell.

### 39. IV. The civil and religious Institutions of our ancestors are indicated in their language:

433

<b>a</b> lderma <b>n</b>	bury	fetter	hustings
beadle	corsnead (in trial	fiend	lady
bode	by ordeal)	gallow <b>s</b>	lord
borough	earl	$\mathbf{hamlet}$	murde <b>r</b>

ordeal	Friday	heathen	whitsuntide
<b>s</b> heriff	Saturda <b>y</b>	heaven	witch
Sunday	<b>e</b> aster	king	witness
Monday	gospel	lamma <b>s</b>	worship
Tuesday	hallow	steeple	yeoman
Wednesday	$\mathbf{holy}$	steward	wapentake .
Thursday	holida <b>y</b>	thrall	queen

- 40. V. National Proverbs are naturally expressed in words derived from our primitive speech.
- 41. VI. The language of invective, contempt, pleasantry, humour, satire, and colloquial wit is home made.

The strong terms, 'curse', 'darling', 'dastard', 'fangle', 'lazy', 'nidget' (a coward), 'rascal', 'shabby', 'slut', 'sly', 'ugly', are of native growth.

42. VII. The particular or individual objects of nature, as opposed to the general or abstract, are named by native words.

This is merely the second rule in another aspect. Thus the specific movements, 'creep', 'fly', 'run', 'walk', &c., are English; but the general idea is expressed by a Latin word—'motion'. 'Black', 'blue', 'green', 'red', 'yellow', &c., are English: 'colour' is Latin. 'Buzz', 'growl', 'grunt', 'hiss', 'hum', 'roar', 'rustle', 'sing', 'speak', 'squeak', 'whistle', &c., are English: 'sound is Latin. So while specific modes of wrongdoing are English—'kill', 'lie', 'murder', 'rob', 'theft', the general terms—'crime', 'injury', 'offence', are Latin. The special numbers are English: the general word 'number' is Latin.

43. These rules must be taken with some latitude, and are not to be employed as absolutely decisive of the origin of any given word.

For although the more familiar objects of sense and of the outer world are described by English names, we have appropriated classical names to add to our means of expressing the same things; as 'animal', 'beast', 'chapel', 'commerce'. 'country', 'district', 'face', 'family', 'firmament', 'forest', 'furniture', 'garment', 'lake', 'minute', 'mountain', 'mutton', 'palace', 'people', 'plain', 'river', 'season', 'serpent', 'stomach', and innumerable others.

### 44. Foreign names came in with foreign objects or facts.

It has been seen that when articles or occupations were imported from other nations, the names, as was to be expected, came too.

### 45. Native words are seldom general.

A few of our own Saxon words have been employed as terms of the highest generality; as 'being', 'well-being', 'truth', 'falsehood', 'will', 'feeling', 'good', 'evil', 'right', 'wrong'. This, however, is rare. We might, like the Germans, have constrained our native vocabulary to serve for general and abstract terms, but we have preferred to derive these from the classical sources. We also in many instances was a retire word. classical sources. We also in many instances use a native word and also the corresponding words in Greek and Latin: 'good', 'moral', 'ethical'; 'one', 'unit', 'monad'; 'truth', 'principle', 'axiom'; 'happiness', 'felicity;' 'glue', 'viscid', 'calloid' 'colloid'.

In all such cases the Latin and Greek words serve to indicate new meanings or shades of meaning, thereby extending our vocabulary. The use of a different word is always accompanied with the tendency to restrict its application to some particular phase of the general idea.

#### COMPOSITION OF WORDS.

I. Most of the words of the language are compounds, The process of composition takes place in two ways: first, by adding to the simple words syllables; or words, called prefixes, and suffixes or endings, which may or may not have an independent existence; 'out-run', 'one-ly' (only); and secondly, by putting together words that have each an independent meaning; as 'break-water', 'lion-hunter'.

As regards the first process, there are a number of recognised prefixes and suffixes habitually employed in forming compound words, nearly all of them imparting a definite signification to the compounds.

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communicating to an object the prominent qualities indicated by the other part of the compound.

(1) Be + noun: 'becloud, bedew, befriend, betroth', &c.,—

all transitive.

In one, 'behead', be has privative force.

(2) Be + adjective: 'becalm, bedim'.

(3) Be + verb. With transitive verbs, the sense of be ='about', 'over', 'upon', is sometimes very distinct, and always to some degree intensive: 'bedaub, begird, beset, besmear, besprinkle; behold, beseech, bestir, bestow, dedeck, dedazzle'. The meaning of the new verb is also transitive.—With intransitive verbs, 'be' still maintains the same sense, and sometimes renders the new verb transitive: 'bemoan, bespeak, bestride, bethink'. At other times, it signifies more pointedly direction towards an end, and the new verb then often remains intransitive: 'become, befall, behove, belong, betake, betide'.

3. In Adverbs (sometimes becoming prepositions or conjunc-

tions): 'because, before, behind, betimes, between'.

Bul (large): 'bulrush'.

For (O. E. for-: cp. German ver, Lat. per and pro), 'through, thoroughly', intensive; then the contrary, 'wrongness, perversion, privation, prohibition'.

Prefixed to verbs: 'forbear, forbid, for(e)fend, forget, for-

give, for(e)go, forlorn, forsake, forswear'.

This prefix is at bottom the same word as the following, 'fore'. Fore (O.E. fore: cp. Germ. vor, Lat. pro and præ): before,

in front, previous.

Nouns: 'foreground, forehead; forenoon'.

Verbs: 'forebode, foreordain, foresee, forewarn'.
Forth: 'forthcoming'.

Ful (full): 'fulfill; full-blown, fullgrown'.

Gain (back, against): 'gainsay'.

In, im (in, into, within): 'inborn, inbred, income, inland, inlay, inside, insight'; 'imbed, imbitter, imbody, imbrown, imbrue'.

'In, im' has sometimes given place to the Romance en, em: 'endear, enkindle, enliven, enshroud, entangle, entrust, entwine'; 'embed, embitter, embody, embolden, embosom, embower'

The force of the prefix is frequently intensive, sometimes

perhaps (though not necessarily) causative.

Mis (wrong, ill, failure): 'misbehave, misgive, mislay, mislead, misname, mistrust; misdeed'.

'Mis' is joined at will to words of classical origin: 'misapply,

miscall, miscount, misinterpret, misplace'.

But in certain apparent cases of this nature, the 'mis' is really of classical origin. (See § 4, under mis).

Ne (not): 'naught, nought, not, nay, neither, never, none, nor'.

Off: 'offal (=off-fall), offset, offshoot, offspring'. See modified forms under a (7), above.

On: 'onlooker, onset, onslaught'.

For modified forms see a (1), above; and un (3), below.

Out (O.E. ut), opposite to 'in'; 'beyond, excelling'. 'Outbreak, outcast, outfit, outpour, outside, outhouse; outdoor, outlaw; outspread, outstretch; outbid, outdo, outlast, outlive, outrun, outvote'.

Over (O.E. ofer), 'above, beyond, excess, down'. 'Overarch, overflow, overlang, overlap; overhear, oversight; overboard; overcoat; overdue, overwise; overdraw, over-estimate, overload, overwork; overbear, overthrow, overturn'.

Thorough, 'from side to side; completely'. 'Thoroughfare; thoroughbred, thoroughpaced'.

To (the, this); 'to-day, to-morrow, to-night'.

To (the prep.): 'together'.

To (Germ. zer, Lat. dis). 'asunder, in pieces', was very common in O.E. 'A certain woman cast a piece of millstone upon Abimelech's head, and all to brake his skull' (Judges ix. 53): 'all (=altogether, quite) to (in pieces) brake', &c.

Twi (two): 'twilight'.

Un. (1) (O. E. on-, Gothic and-, Germ. ent-), 'back; reversal of an action'.

'Unbind, undo, unfold, unhand, unhorse, unlearn, unsay'. With verbs of classical origin, freely: 'unfix, unnerve, unpeople, untune, unyoke'.

In 'unloose', the prefix is intensive (-'back', 'away'), 'loose' itself implying reversal. (Cp. the cases where and-, on, has be-

come a; above, a (5).).

Un. (2) (O.E. un), not. Nouns: 'unbelief, unreason, unrest, untruth, unwisdom'.

Adjectives: 'unfair, unwise, unknown, unseen'.

Un. (3) (on): 'unless, until, unto'.

Under, below; too little or deficiency; support. 'Undercurrent, undergrowth; underground; underestimate, undersell; underhand; undergo, understand, undertake'.

Up: 'upheave, uphold, uplift, uproot; uproar, upshot, up-

start; uphill; upland'. 'Upbraid'.

Wan (root of 'wan, wane, want', &c.), wanting. Cp. un.
Our only remaining example is 'wanton' = wan-towen or
-togen, 'untrained, undisciplined, wild', from teon (draw, lead). There were many in O.E.: 'wanhal' (unhealthy); 'wanhope' (unhope, despair).

Wel, well: welfare, well-being, well-bred'.

With (against, back; opposition): withdraw, withhold, withstand'.

Sometimes a letter has been prefixed for greater ease or fulness of pronunciation, especially s: 'scratch, scream, skip, smelt, sneeze, snip, splash, squabble, squash, squeamish, squeeze, swear, sword'.

On the other hand, a letter is sometimes dropt. Gif is now 'if'; genoh has become 'enough', gelic, 'alike' (see a (4)), and ge-has disappeared from past participles. Similarly, initial g and k, though written, are not pronounced before n: 'gnarl, knee'. Compare also 'knit' and 'net', 'knot' and 'node'. Initial h, while often silent before a vowel, has fallen away before l, n, r: 'laugh (O.E. 'hlihhan'), lord (O.E. 'hlaford'), loud (hlud); neck (hnecca); raven (hræfn), rough (hreoh), ring (hring), ridge (hrycg)'. So, 'it' was formerly 'hit', and 'ostler' was 'hostler'. Initial w is not used now before l: '(w)lisp'; and it is not pronounced before r: 'wreck, write'.

'Orange' dropt initial n from a mistaken association with Lat. aurum (gold). In other cases there has been a transference of n to or from the article: 'an nadder' is now 'an adder'; 'a nap(e)ron' is 'an apron'; while 'an ewt' has become 'a newt', and 'an ouch', 'a nouch'. 'A nag' may be for 'an ag' (cp.

Lat. equus).

3. Classical Prefixes.—There are a number of prefixes derived from the classical languages. Such of them as are still employed to form new compounds may be considered English prefixes; as 'ante' in 'antedate'.

Some of the Latin and Greek prefixes and suffixes are known only as parts of the words that they are found in, and we never think of their separate meaning, nor employ them to make new combinations. Such are the Greek 'a' in 'atrophy', 'anarchy'; 'cata' in 'catastrophe', and many others. A good many of the Latin prefixes and suffixes, and a small number of the Greek, may be regarded as of living application, being adopted in their separate character into the English language.

- 4. The following Prefixes are from the Latin. Many of the secondary forms are due to French influence.
- ab, a, abs (from, away from): 'abject, abhor, abolish, abound, absolve, absorb, abuse; amanuensis, avert, avocation, avoid; abscess, abscond, absent, abstract'.

The prefix is disguised in 'advance, advantage, avaunt, van'

—all through Fr. avant (Lat. ab + ante).

Compare 'abridge' and 'abbreviate', the first through Fr. abréger, the other direct, from Lat. abbreviare. 'Assoilzie', in Scots law, comes through Fr. from Lat ab-solvere.

ad, a, Fr. à (to), with numerous assimilations—ac, af, ag, al, an, ap, ar, as, at: 'address, adhere, admit, adore, adulation, adverse (ad, here, = 'to' in hostile sense, 'against'), advert; abandon, adroit, agree, a-l-loy (Fr. a la loi), amass, ascend, apart, avalanche, avenue; accede, acclaim, account, acquit; a-f-fair (Fr. à faire), affect, affirm, affront; aggravate, aggrieve: allege, allow, ally; annihilate, annul; appal, apparel, approve; arbiter, arrange, arrear; ascertain, assent, assist; attempt, attract'.

'A-l-arm', 'a-l-ert' are from Ital., through Fr. 'Aid' is Lat. adjutare. New formations: 'admeasurement, attune'.

The prefix has been dropt in 'raiment, size, cess (assess)'.

ambi, amb, am, an (both, on both or all sides): 'ambient, ambiguous, ambition, ambulance, amputate, ancipital'.

ante (before): 'antecedent, antedate, anteroom'.

'Anticipate' must not be referred to the Greek prefix 'anti': it brought the *i* from the Lat. 'Ante' is at the root of 'anterior, antique, antic; ancient'.

bene (well): 'benefit, oenevolent, benign'.

bi, bis, bini (twice, two by two): 'biennial, bifurcate, bisect, bivalve; biscuit, bissextile; binocular'. New compounds.

'Pimpernel' is a curious corruption: Fr. pimprenelle, Ital. pimpinella, low Lat. bipinnella, from bipennis, 'two-winged', 'double-leaved'.

circum, circu (about, round): 'circumcise, circumlocution,

circumscribe; circuit'. New compounds.

com (Lat. cum, orig. com, 'with, together'; often little more than intensive); also as col, con, cor, and co: 'combat, combine, commit, compound; collapse. colleague, collide; conceal, concede, concentrate, concur, condemn, consanguineous, contract, correct, corrupt; cognate, cognition, co-operate, coordinate, co-partner, covenant'. New formations abundant, especially with co: 'commingle, compatriot; correspond, correlate; co-pastor, co-tenant, co-worker', &c.

The prefix is further modified, or even obscured, in a few words: cogent (Lat. co-agent-), cost (O. Fr. couster, Ital. costare, Lat. constare), costive (Ital. costipativo, Lat. constipare), costume (through Fr. and Ital., from Lat. consuctudinem), couch (Fr. coucher, O. Fr. colcher, Lat. collocare), council, counsel, count (verb: O. Fr. conter, Lat. computare), count (noun, title: Fr. comte, Lat. comitem, from com-itum, 'go with'), countenance,

couple and copula (co- root ap, to join), cousin (Fr., from Lat. consobrinus), cover (Fr. couvrir, Lat. co-operire), cull (Fr. cueillir, Lat. collisere), curry (Fr. corroyer, Ital. corredare; root red = prepare, make 'ready',) custom (Fr. coutume, Ital. and Lat. costuma, from Lat. consuctudinem), quail (Ital. quagliare, Fr. cailler, O. Fr. coailler, Lat. coagulare), quaint (Fr. coint, Lat. comptus).

contra, contro, N. Fr. counter (Lat. contra. from con; Fr. contre, 'against'): 'contradict, contrast; controversy; counterfeit, countermand'.

New formations: 'contraband, contradistinguish, contravene; controvert; counteract, counterbalance, counterpoise, -scarp,

-sign, -vail', &c.

Hence 'contrary'. 'Counter' is used as an independent adv. and adj. 'Country' is 'the land opposite you,' Fr. contrée, Lat. contrata. Compare Germ. gegend from gegen. 'Country-dance' is a corruption of Fr. 'contre-danse' (the partners being ranged in lines facing each other). 'Control', Fr. controle, contre-rôle, 'counter roll'.

de (down, away, from): 'decay, declare, deduct, deject, delegate, deny, descend'. While often merely intensive, it sometimes indicates deficiency or reverses the root meaning:

' depletion, depopulate, demented'.

A large number of words derive initial de- from 'dis' (French des, de, de), which is merely another form 'de'. 'Debonair'

and 'demure' contain 'de' as preposition.

New compounds are common: 'debase, decipher, decompound, default, denationalise', &c.; and in technical words like 'decarbonise, deodorize', &c.

demi (Fr.; Lat. dimidium, half): 'demigod'.

di, dis, Fr. des, dé (asunder, in two), with assimilation to dif-: 'digress, diligent, dilute, diverge'; disbelieve, disfavour, dislike, dismember, disloyal, disturb; differ, difficult. Descant, descry, deshabille, despatch.

Defer, defy, delay (Lat. dilatum), deluge (Lat. diluvium), &c. 'Dirge' is a contraction of Lat. dirige. New compounds are abundant, with native as well as with classical roots: 'dilacerate, dipetalous; disable, disabuse, disadvantage, dishonour, disrespect, distrust', &c.

ec, e, ex, O. Fr. es, (e)s (from, out of; exceeding; reversal of action), with assimilation to ef-: 'eccentric; edit, educate, egregious, elect, eminent, enormous (out of, beyond rule or measure), emerge (opp. of 'merge', lit. plunge out'); exact, exasperate, exceed, exculpate, express; efficient, effete, effigy '.

Less obvious cases: escape, escheat, essay, issue; sample, scarce, seorch, (Fr. escorcher (ecorcher), Lat. excorticare, from corticem, 'bark'), scourge (Fr. escourgée, Lat. excorrigiata), soar (Fr. essorer, Lat. ex-aurare, from aura); abash (Fr. esbahir), afraid (Fr. effrayer, 'terrify', Lat. exfrigidare), amend ('emend'), award (eswarder, 'look at'), astonish (O. Fr. estonner, Lat. extonare), assay (= 'essay', Fr. essai, Lat. exagium).

New compounds are especially frequent to express past office:

'ex-emperor, ex-mayor', &c.

equi, equ (equal): 'equiangular, equilibrium, equinox, equipoise, equivalent; equanimity'.

extra (from ex: without, beyond): 'extrajudicial, extra-

mural, extraordinary; extra-charge'.

'Extra' forms 'extraneous', and 'strange'.

for (Lat. foris, for-, out of doors, out): 'forceps, forfeit'.

in (1), (not: comp. un (2), with which it is frequently interchanged), with modifications to i, il, im, ir: 'inaction, indiscipline, infant, injustice, inactive, infirm, inhuman; ignoble, ignominy, ignore; illegal, illiberal; immaculate, impiety, impure; irrational, irregular, irresponsible'.

'Enemy' is Fr. cnnemi, Lat. inimicus (in, amicus).

Compare 'inability' and 'unable', 'infidelity' and 'unfaithful', 'injustice' and 'unjust', 'incertitude' and uncer-

tainty', &c. New formations are abundant.

in (2), Fr. en, em (in, into, upon), with assimilations to il, im, ir 'income, increase, incur, induce, infer, innate; illusion, illumine; imbecile, immerse, impair, import, imprison; irradiate, irrigate; enamel, encage, enclose, engrave; embark, embower, embroil, employ'.

A good many words have in- or en-; as 'inquire' or 'enquire'. 'Censer' and 'print' want the prefix: comp. 'incense' and 'imprint'. Disguised forms are: ambush (Fr. embuche, Ital. imboscare, from im, 'in', bosco, 'bush, wood'), annoy (Ital. annoiare, Fr. ennuyer, Lat. in-odio), anoint (Fr. en-oindre, Lat.

in-unct-). New formations are abundant.

inter, O. Fr. enter, (from in: between, among), with assimilation to intel: 'intercede, interdict, intermarry, interval; intellect, intelligent; enterprise, entertain'.

intro (from in: within, into the inside): 'introduce,

intromit, introspection.

juxta (near to, close by): 'juxtaposition'.

magni, magn- (great): 'magniloquent; magnanimous'.

male, mal (badly, ill): 'malefactor, maltreat'; and new compounds.

'Maugre' (in spite of) is Fr. malgre = Lat. male-gratum, 'disagreeable'; 'malady' is from Fr. malade, 'ill', from Lat. male-uptus.

manu, mani, man, Fr. main, man (Lat. manus, hand): 'manufacture, manumit, manuscript; manifest, manipulate; mandate; maintain; manœuvre, another form of which, with another sense, is 'manure'.

medi (mid, middle): 'mediæval, mediterranean'.

'Meridian' is commonly accepted as from medius-dies (midday).

mis, O. F. mes (Lat. minus: less, not, wrongness): 'misadventure, mischance, mischief, miscreant'. It has practically the same effect as the English 'mis'.

ne, nec (not), only in Latin compounds: 'nefarious,

nescience, neutral; negation, negligent, negotiate'.

non (not; = ne + ænum, unum, 'not one thing') is very useful in new formations: 'nonage; nonentity, nonsense;

non-political, non-resistance'.

ob, o, o(b)s, with assimilations oc, of, op (to, towards, upon; in the way of; against, down, away) comes to us in Latin compounds: 'obdurate, obey, object; omit; ostensible; occasion, occur; offend, offer; opportune, oppress'.

'Office' (Lat. officium, opi-ficium, 'help-making') is some-

times wrongly given as from 'ob'.

pen (Fr.; Lat. pæne, almost): 'peninsula, penultimate,

penumbra'.

per, Fr. par (through; thoroughly): 'perceive, perdition, perennial, perplex, pervert; paramour, pardon'. New formations are common: 'peradventure, perchance, perdurable,

peroxide', &c.

'Pellucid' is an assimilation. 'Pilgrim' is for Provençal pelegrin, Ital. pellegrino, Lat. peregrinus. Compare 'appertain' and 'purtenance', 'appurtenance' (Fr. 'appartenance'). 'Pierce' is a great contraction; Fr. percer, Ital. pertugiare, Lat. per-tusum (-tundere).

post ('after'; in place, and chiefly in time): 'postdate,

postfix, post-obit, post-prandial'.

'Puny' ('Puisne' (judges) preserves the older and fuller

form) = Fr. puiné = mois-né, Lat. post-natus.

pre, Lat. præ, Fr. pré: before; superiority, &c.): 'pre-caution, precede, precipice, precise, pre-existence, prefer, preordain, presence, prevail'. New compounds are numerous.

O. Fr. precher (Lat. prædicare) gives 'preach'. 'Provost' is Fr. prevot, Lat. præpositus. 'Provender' is Fr. provende,

Lat. pro-benda.

preter (Fr. preter, Lat. præter, from prae: past, beyond):

'preterate, pretermit, preternatural'.

pro, pol, por, pur (Lat. pro, Fr. pour, por, same root as præ; before, forwards, forth; in place of, for: comp. English

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super, Fr. sur (above, beyond, superiority, excess): 'superabundant, superadd, superintend, supernatural, supernumerary; surcharge, surface (cp. 'superficial'), surfeit, surmount, surtout'. New compounds are not uncommon.

Hence 'superb' (Lat. superbus), 'superior', 'supernal'.

"Sirloin', Fr. surlonge, from sur-longe, 'over the loin'."

supra (from super: above): 'supramundane, supranatural-

ist, suprarenal'.

Hence 'sovereign' (Fr. souverain, Ital. sovrano), 'somersault, somerset, summerset' (corruptions of Fr. soubresaut, Span. sobresalto, Lat. supra-saltus); and 'supreme' (Lat. supremus).

trans, tran, tra, Fr. tres, tra (across, over, through, beyond): 'transact, transatlantic, transfer, transit, transship; tranquil, transcend, transcribe, transom; tradition, traduce, tramontane (as well as 'transmontane': comp. 'ultramontane'); trespass, traverse, travesty'.

'Traitor' (Fr. traitre, Lat. traditor), 'treachery' (O. E. trechour, Prov. trachar, Lat. tradere), 'treason' (O. Fr. traison, Fr. trahison, Lat. traditionem), may be compared with 'tradi-

tion'.

'Trance', or 'transe', Fr. transe, Lat. transitus. 'Travel' and 'travail', from Fr. travail (orig. a break for vicious horses).

from Lat. trabaculum, from trabs (a beam).

tri, tre; ter- (Lat. treis, tris, tres; ter: three, thrice): 'triangle, tribe, tricolour, trident, triple, tripod, trivial; treble, trefoil, trellis (Fr. treillis, Lat. trilicem, tres-licium, 'three-twilled'); tercentenary'. 'Trammel' is Fr tra nail, formerly, trémail, from Lat. tremaculum, from tres-macula, 'three-mesh'

From terni, trini (three by three) come 'ternary', 'trinity'...

ultra (beyond): 'ultraliberal, ultramarine'.
'Outrage' is Fr.; O. Fr. oultrage, low Lat. ultragium.
un, uni (one): 'unanimous; unicorn, unison, universe'.

Hence 'union, unique, unit, unite, unity, unitarian'.

veh, ve (negatives or reverses the root meaning): 'veh-e-

ment '(lit. 'not reasonable ').

'Widow', Lat. vidua, is generally given as from ve (without), dhava (husband); better, from root -vid (separate) in 'divide',

vice, Fr. vis (in place of): 'vice-admiral, vice-chairman, viceroy; viscount'. New compounds are frequent.

Hence 'vicar'.

#### 5. The following are the Greek Prefixes:—

amphi (both, on both sides: Lat. amb, O. E. ymb, umbe, Germ. um): 'amphibious, amphitheatre'.

an. a (negative: Lat. in, Engl. un): anarchy, anecdote, anodyne, anonymous; abyss, adamant, amnesty, apathy, asylum '.

ana (up, back, again): 'anabaptist, anachronism, anaglyph,

analysis, anatomy'.

anti (against): 'antidote, antipathy; antagonist'. 'Anthem', O. E. antefn, antem, is the same word as 'antiphon'.

New formations: antipope, anti-slavery, &c.

apo (from, away: Lat. ab, Engl. off): 'apocalypse, apogee, apology, apoplexy, apostasy, apostle; aphelion, aphorism

arch (chief): 'archangel, archbishop, architect'.

formations: arch-conspirator, arch-heretic, &c.

auto (self): 'autograph, autonomy; authentic'.

cata (down): 'catalogue, catarrh, catastrophe; cataract, catechise; cathedral, catholic. 'Chair' is Fr. chaire, Lat. and Gr. cathedra.

dia, di (through: connected with Lat. dis, de): 'diadem, diagnosis, diameter; diocese, diorama'. Compare 'diaconate', and 'deacon' (Greek diakonos); 'diabolical' and 'devil' (Gr. diabolos, O.E. deofol).

'Diamond' is an accidental similarity: Fr. diamant, Gr.

a-damant- (see an, a).

di (two, twice): 'digraph, dilemma, dipthong, diploma, distich'. 'Di-s-syllable should have only one s.

dys (hard, ill): 'dysentery, dispepsia'.

ec, ex (from, out of): 'ecclesiastic, eclectic, eclipse, ecstasy; exegesis, exodus'.

en, em, el (Gr. en, in): 'encyclopædia, endemic, energy,

enthusiasm; emblem, embryo, emphasis, emporium; ellipse '.
epi, ep (upon): 'epidemic, epigram, episcopal, epistle, epitaph; ephemeral'.

eu (well): 'eucharist, eulogy, euthanasia'.

The v in 'evangel-ic, -ical, -ist', &c., is due to Latin.

hemi (Lat. semi: half): 'hemisphere, hemistich'.

hyper (Lat. super, Germ. über, Engl. over (comp. up, upper): over, beyond, excess): 'hyperborean, hypercritical'.

sub: under): hypocrite, hypothec, hypo, hyp (Lat.

hypothesis; hyphen'.

meta, met (among, with; after; change): 'metamorphose, metaphor, metaphysics; metal, mettle, meteor, method'.

micro (small): 'microcosm (opposed to 'macrocosm'),

microphone, microscope.

mono, mon (alone): 'monogamy, monograph, monomania, monotone; monarch, monody'.

pan, panto (all): 'panorama, pantheism, pantomime'.

para, par (beside, against): parable, paradox, paragraph; parenthesis, parhelion, parish, parody'.

Parabola, parable, parlance, parley, parliament, parlour, parole'-all from Gr. parabole, some of them through low Lat. parabolare, Ital. parlare, Fr. parler.

peri (round): 'pericardium, period, peripatetic'.

Periwinkle' (plant) is O. É. pinewincle, peruince, Fr. pervenche, Lat. pervinca, or vincapervinca, from per and vincio (bind). 'Periwig' is a corruption of 'peruke'. Neither has any connexion with Gr. peri.

philo (friendly to): 'philo-Athenian, philo-Spartan' (Grote).
poly (many): 'polygamy, polygon, polytheism'.
pro (before): 'problem, proem, programme, prologue'.

pros (towards): 'proselyte, prosody'.
pseudo (false): 'pseudonym, pseudo-martyr'.

syn (comp. Lat. cum: with), modified to syl, sym, sy: 'synagogue, synod, synopsis (comp. Lat. conspectus), syntax; syllable; sympathy; system'.

### Derivation of the Parts of Speech.

THE NOUN.

6. Root Nouns. Some Nouns are simple, primitive, or underived words. These are sometimes called roots; as 'eye', 'ear', 'hand', 'foot', 'cow', 'sheep', 'heart,' 'hope'.

These are root words as far as concerns English grammar In the comparison of languages they may sometimes be traced to forms still more radical or fundamental. To do so is the province of comparative grammar, or philology.

7. Derived Nouns are formed from simple Nouns, from Adjectives and from Verbs

The means of formation are: (1) Internal modification change in the vowel, or in the consonants, or in both; (2)

Prefixes; and (3) Suffixes or Endings.

Adjectives are very commonly used as Nouns by simple omission of the nouns they should limit; but these must always be readily understood. Verbs are also sometimes used as nouns without any change.

#### 8. I. Nouns are derived from other Nouns.

(1) By internal modification. By change of vowel, or of vowel and consonant, we have such derivatives as 'chick' (O. E. cycen, from 'cock'), 'kit' (cat), 'tip' (top). In such cases as

ftip', from 'top', we must infer from the nature of the case, or from analogy, which is the primitive and which the derivative. 'Kit' and 'chick' are abbreviations of 'kitten', 'chicken'; and the vowel change is owing to the influence of the final syllable now dropt. These are all diminutives.
(2.) By *Prefixes*. Already exemplified (§§ 2-5).

(3). By Suffices, Native and Classical.

- (a). The following group have reached, from various original meanings, the same general signification of state, quality, or condition. In accordance with the usual tendency, the abstract name has in many cases been taken to express collectiveness, the body of individuals possessing the abstract quality. Some examples have passed to the more remote application of general or class, or even material, names.
- \* Native Suffixes. -craft (strength, skill, condition): 'bookcraft, priestcraft, witchcraft, woodcraft'.

dom (jurisdiction, authority, condition): 'Christendom, heathendom, kingdom (in O. E., however, it was cynedom; see § 9, 2), martyrdom, rascaldom, serfdom'.

hood, head (O. E. had: rank, condition): 'boyhood brotherhood, childhood, manhood; godhead, maidenhead

(·liood) '.

lock (O. E. lac: gift, play): 'wedlock'. In O. E.: brydlac ('bride-lock', marriage), guthlac ('war-play', battle), &c.

ness (state. condition): 'wilderness (from wil(d)deor, 'wild beast'); nothingness, somethingness (Goldsmith)'. Also, perhaps, 'witness'.

red (O. E. ræden: reckoning, law, condition): 'kindred' (O. E. cynred, cynren, for cynræden); 'hatred' is a late example (12th cent.). 'Hundred' is doubtful.

ric (rule, jurisdiction): 'bishopric'.

ship (O. E. scipe: shape, manner, condition): 'fellowship, friendship, guardianship, lordship, worship (= 'worthship')'.

The chief of these suffixes—dom, hood, ship, seem to be employed somewhat indiscriminately in new compounds, the preference being governed probably by suitability of sound. When the same word is combined with more than one suffix, a distinctive meaning is connected with each compound: compare 'kingdom' and 'kingship'.

Classical Suffixes.—acy (Lat. ātus: condition, office): 'celibucy, magistracy'. So: 'curacy, papacy, &c.'.

ade (on analogy of same suffix to verb roots): 'balustrade,

colonnade, fusilade, lemonade'.

age (Fr.; Lat. -aticus, orig. forming adjectives); 'homage,

peerage, vassalage, voyage; brokerage, mileage; cellarage; foliage, herbage; cottage, personage'.

archy (Gr.; rule): 'squirearchy'.

ate (Lat. atus, 4th decl.; office): 'consulate, marshalate, protectorate'. Compare acy. 'Celibate, magistrate, potentate', are concrete applications.

cide (Lat. -cidium, -murder): 'matricide, regicide, suicide'.

Shelley has 'liberticide'.

cracy (Gr. -kratia; rule): 'democracy, ochlocracy, plutocracy; bureaucracy, mobocracy'.

cy (see acy): 'advocacy, bankruptcy, colonelcy, ensigncy'.

ine (Lat. ina): 'discipline, doctrine, medicine; famine'.

ism (as from Greek verbs in izo; see ma . . 3, (3)): 'absenteeism, despotism, journalism, materialism, pietism'.

mony (Lat. -mon-ia, -ium): 'ceremony, matrimony, patri-

mony, testimony'.

ry, ery (Lat. aria, eria, Fr. (e)rie): 'carpentry, chivalry, devilry, knavery, poetry'. So: 'buffoonery, coquetry, popery, rivalry

ty (Lat. tat-em, Fr. te): 'authority, city'. So, 'laity'. y (Lat. atus, 4th decl.): 'county, duchy'. y (Gr. and Lat. eia, ia, Fr. ie): 'barony, energy, euphony, Italy, monarchy, phantasy (fancy)'.

y (Lat. -ium): 'mastery, ministry, mystery'. So, 'burglary,

fishery, robbery'.

Other cases in -y are seen in -ac-y, -arch-y, -crac-y, -mon-y.

(b.) The next group contains examples of endings whose prevailing force is diminutive. There must have been some powerful motives at work to lead to so many forms of expressing diminution. In this case we must look to the feelings even more than to the intellect. The two strong sentimentsendearment and contempt—are gratified by these modes of designating things. They are also applied to the young of all living beings, and to the instances of things occurring below the average size. Many of the terms have now lost their diminutive force, and are applied to discriminate things specifically or generically different, so that the emotional impulses have here, as in other instances, contributed to extend the number of words available for the objects of nature and art.

Native Suffixes. - k, ock (dimin.): 'bullock, hillock; hawk (O. E. hafoc)'. Patronymics: 'Pollock (Paul), Willock, Willox'. In Scotch, -ick: 'lassick' as well as 'lassock'.

ikin, kin (ock + -n): 'bootikin, mannikin; firkin (four), lambkin, napkin'. Patronymics: 'Dawkin(s) (David); Haw-

kin(s) (Hal. Henry); Perkin(s), Peterkin; Tomkin, Tomkyns;

Wilkin(s); Watkin(s) (Wat, Walter)'.

ing (nasalized -k, dimin.): 'farthing (fourth), tithing (tithe, tenth), riding (Yorkshire; for 'thriding': 'thrid' = 'third'). Patronymics: 'Æthelwulfing, Weeting', and regularly in oldest English. So 'ætheling'; 'king' (O. E. eyning, cing) is not certain.

ling (= l-ing): 'duckling, gosling, squireling, yearling'.

y, ie: 'baby, Willy; lassie, lass-ick-ie'. This ending may be regarded as a weaker mode of -k (ock, &c.).

en: 'chicken (cock), kitten (cat), maiden'.

ful (full; the opposite of diminution): 'capful, handful, pocketful'.

Classical Suffixes.—aster: 'oleaster (wild olive), pinaster; pilaster (pillar only partly shown), poetaster (inferior poet)'. cule, cle, ule, le, el, il (Lat. culum, ulus, ellus, illus, &c.): 'animaleule, reticule; partiele (parcel), tubercule, uncle, ventricle, versicle; globule, nodule, pilule; castle, chapel, libel, morsel, vessel (vascul-ar), codicil, pugilist'. 'Grill', Fr. grille, is Lat. eraticula.

r-el, er-el: 'cockerel, mackerel, pickerel (pike)'.

isk (Gr. iskos): 'asterisk, basilisk, obelisk'.

t, et, ot (Fr. et, ette, ot, otte): 'billet, casket, circlet, coronet, lancet, pocket, ticket, turret; ballot, chariot'.

1-et: 'look let, ringlet, leaflet, speechlet'.

(c). A third group contains some endings that express an agent or person, or an instrument or thing, connected with the object that the root word names.

Native Suffixes.—le: 'thimble' (thumb).
lick, lock, ley (O. E. leac, 'leek', 'plant'): 'garlick;
charlock, hemlock; barley'. 'Cowslip' is perhaps a corruption of 'cow's-leek'.

man, woman: 'churchman, -woman, countryman, prize-

en (See Inflexion, Gender, § 5): 'vixen' (fox).

er: 'bencher, executioner, glover, hatter, islander; 74-pounder, three-decker, porringer'. 'Fruit-er-er' has double ending. Through French influence come 'clothier, lawyer', &c. ster: 'songster, tonguester; roadster'.

Classical Suffixes.—ad, id (Gr. and Lat. -ad-, -id-; of, or belonging to; names of descendants and of poems): 'Iliad (Ilion), Sestiad (Sestos); Æneid (Æneas)'. 'Heraclid, Nereid'.

a-go (Lat.; cp. 1go § 13): 'farrago, plumbago, virago, virgin; lan-ugin-ous, ole-agin-ous'. 'Cartilage' (Lat. cartilayo).

al, el, (See § 13): 'canal (channel), funeral, general, hospits (hotel), jewel, material, &c.'; all originally adjectives.

an, ain, &c. (See Adjectives from Nouns, § 13): 'grammarian, librarian; chaplain, villain; campaign'. Fundamentally an adjective formation.

ar, er, or, eer, ier, ary (Lat. -ārius, Fr- -aire, -ier): scholar, vicar; butler, carpenter, cellarer, draper, messenger plover, prisoner, sorcerer, squire (older 'squyer'), treasurer, usher; chancellor, proprietor; brigadier, chandelier; engineer, mountaineer; dignitary, functionary, missionary'.

ar, er, ry, ary (Lat. arium; place or thing): 'cellar, charter, exemplar (sampler); dower, larder, saucer; dowry, vestry; aviary, granary, library, seminary, vocabulary'.

'Armony'.

ard (N. Fr. ard, Germ. hart, O. E. heard: intensive): 'coward (Lat. cauda, 'tail'; cp. Ital. codardo: has no connexion with 'cow'), staggard, tankard; Savoyard; Leonard'. 'Gizzard' is assimilated from Fr. gesier, Lat. gigerium. 'Lizard' is French lézard, Lat. lacerta.

ate (substances): 'cerate, carbonate, hydrate'. brum (Lat.; place): 'candelavrum, cerebrum'.

ch ge (Lat. -icus, -ica): 'perch, porch; forge, serge'. cide (Lat. -cida, -killer): 'matricide, regicide'.

crat (Gr., ruler): 'democrat, plutocrat'.

ern: 'casern, cistern, tavern'.

ess (Lat. issa, Fr. esse: see Inflexion, Gender, § 5):

'baroness, duchess, manageress, poetess'.

ess, is, ese, (Lat. ensis, of, belonging to): 'burgess, marquis (marquess); Milancse, Siamese'. Originally adjectives: see § 11.

-ic, -tic (originally adjective ending): 'cleric (clerk), mystic;

logic(s), mathematics, metaphysic(s) ', &c.

ina, ine (Gr. inc, Lat. ina: see Inflexion, Gender, § 5): "heroine, Josephine; czarina".

ine, in (substances: fundamentally adjective ending):

'caseine, fluorine, pepsine, tannin'.

ist (on the analogy of nouns from Greek verbs in izo): 'artist, calvinist, excursionist, florist, monarchist, pianist, tobacconist, tolerationist'.

ist-er: 'bar-r-ist-er, chor-ist-er, sophister'.

ite, it (Gr. ites, Lat. ita): 'cosmopolite, hoplite, Israelite, Neapolitan; Jesuit'. And in scientific names of substances: 'ammonite, dolomite, websterite'.

ix. See trix, below.

on, eon, ion, oon, one (Lat. -on-, -ion-: persons, animals, or things, like to or connected with the object denoted by the

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'abundance, brilliance, -anc-y, delinquency, eminence, -enc-y, evidence, precedence, -ency'.

ry, ery: 'bravery, finery, pleasantry'.

tude (Lat. tud-(in)-em): 'aptitude, certitude, lassitude, magnitude, multitude, quietude (for quiet-tude), plenitude'. 'Custom' is consuctudinem, Fr. coutume.

ty (Lat. tat-em, Fr. te): 'beauty, bounty, certainty, charity, cruelty, faculty, fidelity (fealty), honcsty (for honest-ty), liberty, purity, security (surety), variety'.

y (Gr. and Lat. ia, Fr. ie): 'misery, perfidy, philosophy;

efficacy, delicacy, privacy, &c.

For other cases of -y, see lenc-y, mon-y, nc-y, above.

(b) A few suffixes expresses agent or person, or instrument or related object.

Native Suffixes. - er, ster: 'Britisher, foreigner, philoso-

pher; youngster '.

ing, lin-g (often dimin.): 'sweeting, whiting; darling (dear), firstling, youngling, weakling'. 'Scantling' is an assimilation of Fr. echantillon, which is a dimin. from a noun, and has nothing to do with 'scant'.

Classical Suffixes.—arch (Gr., ruler): 'hierarch, monarch'. ary (Lat. āri-us.-um): 'adversary, secretary; mortuary'.

ate (like participles in -atus): 'candidate'.

crat (Gr., ruler): 'aristocrat, autocrat'.

ist (on analogy of nouns from Gr. verbs in -izo): 'economist,

optimist, purist, royalist, specialist'.

n, an, ain, en, in, on (om) (Lat. -ān-, -ēn-, &a): 'dean, fountain, mountain; alien, dozen, sovereign; chain, vermin; danison (damascene), venom; clarion, onion, simple-t-on.' Most of these are originally adjectives.

s-ter (Lat.): 'master (magister), minister'.

t, it(e), ot(e) (Gr. -tes, Lat. -ta): 'hermit (eremite), idiot, patriot; Cypriote'.

#### 10. III. Nouns are derived from Verbs.

- (1) By internal modification.
- (a) By change of vowel: 'band, bond (from 'bind'), food (feed), stroke (strike)'.
- (b) By modifying the final consonant: 'belief (believe), ditch (dig), speech (speak)'.
- (c) By modifying both vowel and consonant: 'choice (choose), breach (break), life (live), watch (wake), breath (breathe), loss (lose), hilt (hold)'.

- (2) By Prefixes (§§ 2-5). This process is indirect: 'income, outcome, outturn, overturn, &c'.
  - (3) By Suffixes.
- (a) Expressing agent or person, or instrument or related object.

Native Suffices.—1, el, le: 'beadle, beetle (the animal), fowl'. 'Beetle (mallet), bridle, bundle, girdle, nee-d-le, riddle, saddle, sail, settle (seat), shovel, sickle, skittles, spin-d-le, stile (O.E. stigel), whittle'.

1-ing (diminutive; sometimes passive): 'changeling, foster-

ling, hireling, suckling'.

m, om: 'barm (bear), bloom (blow), gleam (glow), qualm (quell), seam (sow), team (tow); blossom (blow), bosom, bottom, fathom'.

man: 'hangman'. 'Ploughman, watchman, workman',

&c., may come from nouns.

n, en, on (past partic. ending): 'bairn (bear), beacon (beck), burden (bear), heaven (heave), main (may, O.E. mag-, 'be great'), son (= bairn), thane (O.E. theg(e)n, then, from verb = 'serve'), token (from verb = 'show'), waggon, wain (from O.E. wegan, 'to carry')'.

nd (O.E. impf. part. ending): 'fiend (from fian, 'to hate'), friend (O.E. freend, from freen, 'to love')'. 'Errand (from verb = 'be quick'), wind (from verb = 'blow')'.

r, ar, er, or: 'baker, boor, builder, delver, digger, idler, planter, printer, singer, speaker; beggar (formerly 'begger'), liar; sailor (O. E. 'sailer')'. 'Bower, chopper, cooler, disclaimer, finger, lair, rejoinder, reminder, roller, stair, streamer,

ster (see Inflexion, Gender, § 5): 'baxter (O.E. becestre, from 'bake'), brewster, deemster or dempster (judge, in Isle of Man and in Channel Islands: O.E. deman, to deem or judge), punster, rhymester, spinster, throwster'.

th, t, d (past partic. ending): 'wreath; cleft, gift; blade, brand, deed (do), flood, seed (sow)'. Cp. abstracts in these

endings.

ther, ter, der: 'father, mother, daughter'. 'Bladder, blister (blow), feather (from verb = 'fly'), fodder, ladder (from verb = 'climb'), rudder (row).'

Classical Suffixes.—ade, ado (see below (2)): 'renegade, desperado'.

ard, art (see § 8; mixed up with sense of agency): 'blink-

ard, brag-g-art (formerly 'braggard'), laggard; poniard'.

bulum (Lat.), bule, ble: 'pabulum; vestibule; fable, stable, vocable'. '-bra, as in 'vertebra', is a slight modification for, euphony.

culum (Lat.), cule, cle; slightly modified to crum (Lat.), chre: 'curriculum; ridicule; miracle, article, vehicle; fulcrum, simulacrum; sepulchre'.

ple (Lat. pulum): 'example, temple'.

Compare also -trum.

ee (Lat. p. part. -atus, -ata; Fr. é,-ée): 'legatee'. 'absentee, committee, consignee, devotee, payee, refugee'.

ma, m, me, -s-m (Gr. and Lat., -ma, -mos (mus), -s-m-): diploma, poem, problem, scheme, theme; clasm, spasin, baptism, chrism, prism, isthinus, cosmos, microcosm'. The -sbelongs originally to derivatives from Greek verbs in -izo. Many of these words are, in the first instance, abstract; as 'baptism, spasm'.

mus, m, me (Lat. -mus, &c., instrumental agency): 'animus,

arm, fame, flame, fume'.

men, me, m (Lat. men, passive subject): 'specimen, crime, volume, charm, germ (germen)'. 'Noun' is from 'nomen', through French.

mnus, mn (Lat. mnus, &c., passive subject): 'alumnus,

autumn, column '.

n, ne (Lat. -n-us, -a, -um; Gr. nos, &c.,; 'possessing'; cognate with -n, en of p. part.): 'fane, pen, plain, plane, reign, sign, throne'.

ndum (Lat.), nd (gerund.): 'memorandum; deodand, multiplicand, reprimand, viand; devidend, legend, prebend'.

nt (Lat. impf. part.): 'defendant, merchant, accident, agent, current, student'. Cp. Adjectives in -nt, many of which become nouns, sometimes with change of '-ent' to '-ant'.

ion, on, eon, oon (Lat. -on-, &c.): 'legion, region; dragon, glutton, lesson (lection), mason; pigcon; buffoon, spittoon'.

Cp. abstracts.

ess (see Inflexion, Gender, § 5): 'cateress, murderess, procuress'. The fem. ending replaces, instead of being added to, the masc. ending. 'Empress' is an assimilation; contracted,

through French, from imperatricem (-trix).

t, ate, it(e), s(e), ce, te, ute (Lat. parts. of verbs): 'advocate, curate, legate, mandate (Cp. -ade); debt, convent, desert, fact, fruit, insect, jet, joint, post, rent, tract, verdict; spouse, assize, expense, fosse, response, verse; sauce, source; note, vote; statute, tribute'.

t, te (Gr. tes, Lat. ta): 'apostate, comet, planet'.

s-t, ast, ist (the -s- belongs originally to the Greek verb) 'dikast, enthusiasm; baptist, catechist, Christ'. Similar formations from nouns and adjectives by -ist are abundant.

t-or, s-or, or, er (Lat. t-orem, s-orem, Fr. -teur, seur, &c.): creditor, debtor, doctor, factor, monitor, victor; censor,

sponsor, successor'. 'Author' is a misspelling of Lat. and O. E. auctor. 'Emperor, governor, juror, &c.' have been curtailed. 'Er' has often usurped the place of -or: 'interpreter (Lat. interpretatorem), lever, preacher, &c.'

t-or-y, s-or-y, or, our, er (Lat. t-or-ium, s-or-ium; Fr. -oir(e)): 'auditory, dormitory, oratory, refectory; mirror, razor,

scissors; parlour; censer, counter, laver.'

trum, tre, ter, s-t-r (Lat. trum): 'rostrum, spectre, cloister, monster'.

y, ey (Lat. p. part, āta, Fr. ée): 'arm', assembly, destiny, entry, jelly, jetty, jury, levy, quarry; chimney, covey, medley'. y (Fr. -ie): 'battery'.

(2) Expressing action; with frequent new applications to con-

crete meanings.

Native Suffixes.—ing (O.E. ung: verbal nouns): 'beginning, blessing (O.E. bletsung), cleansing, drawing, ending, meeting, reasoning, suffering, writing'.

ledge (O.E. lac; see lock, § 8): 'knowledge (O.E. cnawlac,

cnowlech)'.

ter: 'laughter, slaughter'.

th, t (past partic. ending): 'birth (bear), broth (brew), earth (ear, 'to plough'), filth (file), growth, ruth (rue), tilth; draught, drift, flight, frost, thought'.

Classical Suffixes.—ad, ade, ada, ado (Lat. atus,-a: 'ad' for Fr. ade; 'ade' Ital. through Fr.; 'ada', 'ado', Span.): 'ballad, salad; barricade, blockade, escapade, promenade, tirade; armada; bravado'.

age (Lat. -aticum, Fr. age: orig. adjective ending, then collective, finally abstract): 'breakage, carriage, cleavage, mess-

age, marriage, passage, tillage'.

al (Lat. ālis; cp. age): 'arrival, committal, denial, removal, reversal, revival, upheaval, withdrawal'.

el, le (Lat. -ēla): 'candle, cautel, quarrel, tutel-age'.

igo (Lat. cp. ago, § 8): 'impetigo, vertigo; origin (Lat. eriginem).

in, ine (Lat. ina): 'ruin; rapine'.

ment (Lat. mentum): 'attainment, argument, bewilderment, confinement, fulfilment, impalement, torment'. New formations, like some of the foregoing, are very abundant. They all tend strongly to be used in the concrete application; as 'argument, document, instrument, ornament'.

mon-y (Gr. and Lat. mon-ia, -ium): 'alimony, harmony, parsimony' (for 'parcimony', from verb parco, or from adj.

parcus).

nce (See nouns from Adjectives). New formations from verb

roots are plentiful: 'alliance, insistance (-ence), remembrance, tarriance, variance; existence, occurrence'.

or, our (Lat. orem, Fr. eur): 'clamour, error, favour,

honour, labour'.

sis, sy, se (Gr. and Lat. sis, Fr. sie, se): 'analysis, basis, metamorphosis, periphrasis, thesis; epilepsy, hypocrisy, palsy (paralysis), poesy; base, dose, ellipse, phrase'.

t, it(e), s(e), &c. (see above): 'appetite, audit, credit, habit, merit; desert, quest; applause, course, lapse, use; access, pro-

cess'. See also forms in -acy and -y.

t-ion, s-ion, ion, son, som, ation (Lat. -onem, Fr. -on): 'action, conviction, detrition, fiction, lotion, restitution, station; cession, convulsion, fusion, oppression; contagion, oblivion, opinion, suspicion; fashion (faction), poison (potion), reason (ration), season, treason (tradition), venison'. 'Ransom' is through Fr. from Lat. redemptionem. The ending -ation gives the appearance of derivation from verbs of the -are conjugation: 'botheration, insultation'; and especially with -ficbefore it: 'glorification, mystification', corresponding to verbs in -fy, 'glorify, mystify', which modify the Lat, form -fac- or -fic- under French influence.

t-ure, s-ure, (Lat. -ūra; often becoming concrete): 'cap-ture, censure, composure, fissure, gesture, posture, pressure; adventure, aperture, creature, discomfiture, embrasure, failure, forfeiture, lecture, picture, seizure, soilure'. 'Armour' (Lat. amatura). Several words take this ending by assimilation:

'leisure, pleasure, treasure'.

y, ium, (Lat. ium): 'colloquy, study; odium'. New formations: 'delivery, discovery, inquiry', and many others.

Compare similar abstracts from nouns. For other cases of -y, see -mon-y, above.

#### DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES.

II. Derived Adjectives are formed from Nouns, from other Adjectives, and from Verbs.

Nouns are very largely used as adjectives without any change of form. Verbs are very sparingly employed in the same way.

I. Adjectives are derived from Nouns, by means of Suffixes.

Native Suffixes.—d, ed (past partic. ending: 'endowed. furnished with'): 'certificated, feathered, experienced, gifted, moneyed, ragged, sainted, skilled'. Especially common when an adjective accompanies the noun: 'close-fisted, left-handed, middle-aged, right-minded, wrong-headed, &c.'.

n, en ('of' of 'belonging to'; material): 'brazen, flaxen, golden, leathern, oaken, waxen, wheaten, wooden, woollen'.

er-n: 'east-er-n, northern, southern, western'.

er-ly (compare -ly, below): 'easterly, &c.'.

fast (O. E. fast, firm): 'rootfast, shamefast (usually spelled 'shamefaced'), stedfast'.

ful: 'awful, careful, gainful, hopeful, truthful'.

ish (possessing some leading quality of the noun; attached to; belonging to): 'bookish, boyish, foolish, selfish, slavish; English, Welsh, Dutch'.

less (O. E. leas, 'loose'; privation or negation): 'artless,

cheerless, fearless, friendless, lawless, senseless, sleepless'.

like, ly (resemblance, likeness): 'childlike, courtly. godlike,

lordly, lovely, manlike, manly, yearly, warlike'.

some (O. E. -sum, Germ. -sam; another form of 'same'; possessing the quality of the noun): 'adventuresome, burden-some, delightsome, handsome'.

ward (becoming, turned in the direction of): 'homeward, landward, southward'. These words are probably to be con-

sidered as adverbs.

y, ey (the quality of the noun): 'airy, balmy, cloudy, flowery, foggy, grassy, lofty, oily, seedy, silvery, watery, &c.'

Classical Suffixes. -able (See § 13): 'fashionable, marketable,

objectionable. serviceable'.

-c, ac, ic, -tic, -ge (Gr. and Lat. -ic-, -tic-): 'demoniac, maniac; Britannic, civic, cleric, dogmatic, generic, magic, mystic, public, schismatic, strategic; aquatic, Asiatic, domestic, fanatic, lunatic'. With -ist: 'characteristic, fetichistic, mediumistic, ritualistic'.

With additional ending: 'cleric-al, magical, mystical,

pragmatic-al; bellic-ose'.

'Savage' is Lat. silva-tic-us, through Fr. sauv-age.
-d, id (Gr. eides; like): 'alkaloid, ovoid, typhoid'.

form (Lat. -form-is): 'dendriform, penniform, poriform'.

-1, al, el, il(e), le, (Lat. -alis, -ēlis, -ilis): 'annual, capital, literal, nominal, regal; additional, professional, regimental, &c.; cruel; civil, gentile (gentle, genteel), hostile, jaunty, puerile; hum-b-le'. Very many adjectives in -al are converted into nouns. (See § 8.)

Occasionally at is added to or takes the place of other endings. Especially it is added to -ic (See above): 'biblic-al, cubical, logic-al ('logic' having become a noun). Cp. 'celest-i-al (Lat. cæl-est-is), fest-iv-al (Lat. fest-iv-us), pater-n-al (Lat. pater-nus).'

lent (Lat. lentus): 'corpulent, fraudulent, opulent, somno-

lent, turbulent'.

n, an, ane, ian (Lat. anus, Fr. an, ain, aine, ien): 'human,

pagan; American, Elizabethan, Roman; hemane, mundane, urbane; Christian, Ciceronian, prætorian; Neapolitan, cosmo-

politan'.

There are numerous new formations without reference to the original Latin ending: 'barbarian (Lat. -us), Corinthian, Etruscan, plebeian, Unitarian; civilian (Lat. -is), equestrian (-estris), pedestrian; Spenserian. Walpolian'.

-n, an-eous, an-ean, aign, eign, en, (Lat. an-eus, Fr. ain): 'contemporaneous, spontaneous, subterranean, champaign, foreign (older 'foren'), sudden'.

-n, ene, ine (Lat. -ēn-, -īn-): 'terrene; Nazarene; adamantine, asinine, bovine, divine, equine, feline, marine, saline; Jugurthine '.

-r, ar, ary (Lat. aris); 'particular, perpendicular, popular,

regular, secular; military, palmary'.

-r, ary, ari-ous, ari-an (Lat. arius): arbitrary, customary, hereditary, honorary, imaginary, legionary, parliamentary, revolutionary, tributary; gregarious, nefarious; valetudin-arian, latitudinarian, utilitarian '.

ese (Lat. ensis, Ital. ese): 'Chinese, Maltese; Johnsonese'. 'Courteous' (O. Fr. curteis) has assimilated itself to -ous.

'Peasant' is Fr. paysan, Lat. pagensis.

esque, -ice, -is (Lat. iscus, Fr. esque: cp. Engl. ish): 'arabesque, grotesque. Moresque ('morrice' or 'morris' dance, = 'Moorish'), picturesque, statuesque'.

ose, ous (Lat. osus, Fr. eux, oux): 'operose, schistose, verbose; calamitous, envious, glorious, perilous, pernicious, studious, victorious'. New formations are abundant: 'avaricious, burglarious, felonious, murderous, rapturous, slanderous, uproarious, wondrous; contentious, contradictious, disputaious, ostentatious'.

For Lat. -us: 'consanguineous (Cp. 'sanguine'), decorous,

igneous, noxious, uxorious'.

For Lat. -is: 'illustrious, scurrilous'.

Added to -ac-: 'farin-ac-e-ous (Lat. -ac-e-us), gallinaceous, herbaceous'; so 'carbonaceous, crustaceous, pearlaceous'. -ari-: 'greg-ar-i-ous (Lat. ar-i-us), nefarious, precarious'. -ic-: 'bell-ic-ose'. To -fer-: 'auri-fer-ous (Lat. -fer), carboniferous'. To -ger : 'armi-ger-ous (Lat. -ger), plumigerous'.

'Boisterous' (O.E. bostois), 'courteous' (see ese), and 'right-

eous' (for 'right-wise', O. E. rihtwis), are assimilations.

t (Lat. tus): 'honest, modest, robust'.

t, ate, ute (on analogy of participles): 'delicate, dentate, laureate; astute, cornute'. So, 'affectionate, (com-)passionate'. time (Lat. timus): 'maritime; legitim-ate'.

ive (Lat. ivus): 'festive, furtive, instinctive'.

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et, ette (Fr.): 'brunette, dulcet, russet'.

-t, ate (§ 11): 'aureate, candidate (orig. an adj.), roseate; intim-ate, legitim-ate'.

### 13. III. Many Adjectives are formed from Verbs.

- (1) The Participles, imperfect and perfect, of the Verb are often converted into Adjectives: 'a paying occupation', 'a roaring lion', 'outlying districts', 'a seeming discrepancy'; 'conquered provinces', 'departed spirits', 'the doomed ship'. 'escaped criminals', 'pent-up energy', 'runaway horses', 'his bounden duty', 'molten gold'; 'untaught, uncomforted, unfed'. 'Uncouth' is literally 'unknown'.
  - (2) Adjectives are formed from Verbs by Suffixes.

Native Suffixes.—ful: 'forgetful, wakeful'. Compare O. E. forgitol, wacol. The -ful is an assimilation.

le: 'brittle, fickle (O. E. ficol,) nimble (O. E. numol) .

less. 'exhaustless, quenchless, shunless'.

r. er: 'bitter (bite), slipper-y'.

some. 'buxom (= bugh-some, from bugan, 'to bow'), meddlesome, noisome (Fr. noisir), tiresome'.

\* t (past partic.): 'bright, right, swift'.

y: 'blowy, doughty (from dugan, 'to be able, to prevail'), shaky, sticky, sultry (swelter-y).'

Classical Suffixes.—id (Lat. -idus); 'arid, candid, frigid, humid, rapid, splendid, timid, turbid'.

'Neat', Fr. net, is Lat. nitidus.

-l, b-l, bile, able, ible, (i)le (Lat. (-b)-il-is), able; mostly passive, sometimes active): 'mobile; commendable, laudable, probable; credible, defensible, horrible, plausible, terrible; feeble (Lat. fle-bilis), noble, stable, voluble; fertile, fissile, fragile (frail), versatile; able (formerly 'hable', Lat. hab-ilis)'. Numerous new formations: 'attainable, believable, credible, changeable (mutable), eatable (edible), killable, maintainable, renovable, thinkable, warrantable'.

-nd, und, bund, cund, ond (Lat.; gerund form; participial sense): 'facund, jocund, moribund, rotund (round),

rubicund, second, vagabond.

nt (Lat. impf. part.): 'abundant, distant, constant, dormant; eminent, latent, provident (prudent), urgent'.

-r, re (Lat. -r-): 'clear, dire, meagre, pure'.

ous: 'conscious (Lat. -us), omnivorous, superfluous,

viviparous'.

Added to -ac-: 'cap-ac-ious (I.at. -ac-s), fallacious, tenacious'. u-ous (Lat. u-us = vus; particip. sense, active or passive): 'congruous, conspicuous, deciduous, ingenuous'. ul-ous (Lat.

ul-us, prone to; participial sense): 'bibulous, credulous, garrulous, querulous, sedulous'. it-ious (Lat. ic-ius, &c.; added to supine): 'adventitious, nutritious supposititious, surreptitious'.

-t, ate, ete, ite, ute, se (Lat. p. part.): 'cognate, considerate, desolate, private; complete, concrete, discreet, secret; composite, finite, erect, strict; acute, minute, mute, resolute; chaste; close, immense, sparse, tense, terse'.

s-or-y, t-or-y (Lat. -s-or-ius, -t-or-ius): 'amatory, expository, hortatory; promissory, sensory'. Compare § 10, and § 11, y,

end.

ive, iff, y (Lat. ivus, -us, Fr. -if; joined to supines with sense of impf. participle, rarely of p. p.): 'active, attentive, executive, fugitive, pensive, subversive; captive, native (naive), caitiff (captive).' Many of these are used as nouns. 'Bailiff, plaintiff' are, perhaps always nouns now. 'Hasty, pursy (Fr. pourcif, poussif). New formations are not uncommon: 'combative, forgetive, talk-at-ive'. The passive application, as in Shakespeare's 'insuppressive mettle', is not to be encouraged.

#### DERIVATION OF VERBS.

14. Derived Verbs are formed from Nouns, from Adjectives, and from other Verbs.

Nouns and Adjectives are very frequently used as Verbs without any change.

#### I. Verbs are derived from Nouns.

- (1.) By Prefixes, (§§ 2-5).
- (2.) By Suffixes.

Native Suffixes.—-1, el: 'kneel, muffle, quibble (quip), sparkle, throttle'.

-n. en (causative): 'heighten, lengthen, strengthen'.

Classical Suffixes.—ate (Lat. supine, ātum). 'animate, culminate, exaggerate, germinate, militate, modulate, populate, stagnate'.

eer, er (Lat. are, ari; Fr. -er): 'domineer (cp. 'dominate');

cater'

fy (§ 15): 'de-i-fy, edify, modify'.

ize, ise, (Gr. izō, Fr. iser: causative): 'appetize, epitomize, pulverize, sermonize, subsidize, tantalize, tyrannize'.

ish and ite. See § 16.

(3.) By change, (a) of Vowel, (b) of Consonant, or (c) of both.

(a.) 'Bleed' (blood), 'gild' (gold).

(b.) 'Bulge (bulk), calve, clothe, halve, house, prize (price),

shelve, thieve, wreathe'.
(3.) 'Bathe (bath), breathe, glaze, graze (grass), hitch (hook)'.

Many words are nouns or verbs according to the place of the accent: 'àbstract,—abstràct'; 'àccent,—accènt'; 'àugment,—augmènt'; 'còmpound,—compòund'; 'cònflict,—conflict'; 'contrast,—contrast'; 'dìgest,—digest'; 'import,—import'; 'subject,—subject'; 'survey,—survey; 'torment,—torment'. These are all of Latin origin.

It has also been seen that our language permits the free conversion of a noun into a verb, and the opposite, without any

change.

The general effect of these derivations is to enable the meaning of the noun to become active, or to express the fact of its being imparted to something. The chief exception is seen in the negative prefixes.

### 15. II. Verbs are derived from Adjectives.

- (1.) By Prefixes (§§ 2-5).
- (2.) By Suffixes.

Native Suffixes. -- n. en (causative): 'blacken, fatten, ripen, shorten, sweeten'.

-r, er (causative): 'hinder, lower'.

se (causative): 'cleanse, rinse (cp. Germ. rein, 'pure').'

Classical Suffixes.—ate (Lat. supine, ātum): 'alienate, celebrate, integrate, participate'.

With formative syllable -it-: 'debil-it-ate, facilitate, gravi-

tate'.

fy (Lat. ficare, Fr. fier: causative): 'clar-i-fy, fortify, purify, sanctify.

ize. is (§ 14): 'civilize, fertilize, humanize, realize'.

ish. See § 16.

(3.) By Change of Vowel: 'fill' (full).

The effect of this conversion is almost uniformly to signify the imparting of the quality connoted by the adjective.

#### 16. III. Verbs are extensively derived from Verbs.

- (1.) By Prefixes (§ 2-5).
- (2.) By Suffixes.

Native Suffixes. - k (frequentative): 'hark (hear), talk (tell)'. le (the same): 'crumple (crimp), dazzle (daze), dribble (drip), grapple (grip), straddle (stride), waddle (wade)'.

er (diminutive and frequentative): 'batter (beat), flutter,

glimmer (gleam), patter (pat), sputter (spit)'.

Classical Suffixes.—ate (Lat. supine, ātum): 'create, dictate, instigate, migrate, navigate'.

With formative syllable -it- (frequentative): 'ag-it-ate,

cogitate, hesitate, palpitate'.

esce, ish (Lat. -escere; Fr. -iss- (Lat. -isc-, -esc-) in verbs in ir, Lat. -ire: growing or tending to): 'coalesce, effervesce; abolish, languish, perish, ravish, relinquish'.

A step further back would sometimes bring us to nouns: 'famish, finish, punish'; or to adjectives: 'flourish, cherish,

diminish, embellish, establish, replenish'.

ge (Lat. -icare, Fr. ger): 'charge, judge, -venge'.

it, ite (Lat. supine itum): 'edit; expedite, ignite'. The Latin forms of the two last are from noun roots.

- (3.) By modifying the Vowels, or Consonants, or both: 'drip (drop), tell (fall), roost (rest), raise (rise), reel (roll), set (sit) snuff (sniff), dodge (dog), blench (blink), dredge (drag), drench (drink), twitch (tweak), watch (wake), wrench (wring)'. Most of these derivatives are causative verbs.
- (4.) By postfixing Adverbs and Prepositions: as 'find out', 'pluck out', 'bear with', 'bring in', 'fall in', 'climb up', 'heave to', 'despair of'. These postfixed words are to be considered in many cases as part of the verb, although not only not fused with it, like the ordinary suffixes, but susceptible of being removed to a distance by the object coming between: 'find him out', 'pluck it out'. 'bring the messenger in', 'send the things away'. They often acquire a meaning not explained by the separate meanings of the parts: 'find out' is no more to be parsed as two words than 'invent'. Moreover, we find verbal nouns formed from them: 'the looker on', 'entrance in', 'goings out', 'the climber upward'—(Shakespeare). We may have two different meanings from the same constituents differently placed: as 'overcome', 'come over'.

To sum up; in deriving verbs from verbs, we have sometimes little more than a synonyme ('arise'); in other cases, a diminutive, or frequentative force; and in some instances an intensive effect. The causative verbs are a distinct class. Among the most important derivatives are those that negative in some way or other the meaning of the simple verb.

#### DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

## 17. Adverbs are formed principally from Adjectives and Nouns.

(1.) By *Prefixes*. These have already been exemplified (§ 2-5): 'a-bed, -ground, -head; awry; a-down; alone, -so; be-fore,

-hind, -sides, -times; n-ever; -or; to-day, -night; underground'. 'Apace. apart, across; per-adventure -chance, -haps'.

(2.) By Native Suffixes.

ly is now by far the principal ending whereby adverbs are derived from adjectives: 'carefully, gently (for 'gentle-ly'), honestly, hopelessly, probably (for 'probable-ly'), smoothly, swiftly'

Also from participles: 'beseechingly, confidingly, disappointingly, falteringly, perplexingly; unflinchingly; decidedly, disconnectedly, pointedly; unweariedly.

From nouns: 'haply, purposely; monthly, weekly'.

ling, long: 'darkling, flatling; headlong'. meal (division): 'limbmeal, piecemeal'.

ward, wards: 'down ward(s)', forward(s) (= forth-ward(s)), outward(s)'. 'Froward' and 'wayward' are adjectives.

way, way-s: 'straightway, noways'.

wise . 'likewise, otherwise'.

Various inflexional endings may also be noted:

Genitives end in s, es, se, ce: 'always, besides, betimes, needs, nowadays, unawares, upwards; else (O. E. elles); once, twice, thrice (older ones, twies, thrics)'

The -t in some words of this class is an accretion: 'amidst,

amongst, betwixt, whilst', for 'amiddes', &c.

Datives: 'seldom, whilem (O. E. -um)'. In Oldest English, the adv. was formed from the corresponding adjective by adding -e—a dative suffix : fæst ('fast': adj.), fæst-e ('fast': adv.).

Accusatives: 'alway, noway, otherwise, sometime, back-

ward; then, than'.

Instrumentals: 'the (with comparatives), thus (this), how,

why'.

'Here, there, where, hither, thither, whither', are locatives from pronominal roots. 'Hence, thence, whence', seem to combine a locative and a genitive suffix: -n-+-ce (= es).

Setting aside the regular formation in 'ly', and the instances of inflexional endings, the remaining adverbs are really phrases. One leading class shows a union of preposition (chiefly 'a ') and noun: 'a-sleep, be-sides, per-chance'. Others show an adjective and a noun coalescing, the preposition being absent: 'noway, otherwise'.

#### DERIVATION OF PREPOSITIONS.

18. The chief Prepositions are primitive words of the English language, and have corresponding forms in the other languages of the Indo-European family: 'at, by, for, in, of, on, to, with'.

In 'from', the -m is a superlative ending.

Comparative endings appear in a few prepositions: 'after (af = of, 'from'); over (O. E. of-er, from root of of); under (compare Lat. inter: from in). Also in 'ere' (O. E. æ-r 'earlier, before').

'To-ward(s)' is 'in the direction of', in the direction indi-

cated by 'to'.

A large number of prepositions are really shortened phrases: 'amid(st), beside, behind, &c. '; — in the midst (= middes-t, mid being adj. and t an accretion) of, 'by the side of', &c. 'Like, near, next, &c.' are adjectives practically used as prepositions, through the omission of 'to': 'like to', 'near to',

Participles: 'notwithstanding, owing to'.

Classical Prepositions. Simple: 'per, pro, sans'. 'Across' is a shortened phrase. 'Maugre, minus, round', adjectives. The chief instances are originally participles: 'concerning, during, excepting, regarding, touching; except(ed), past, save'.

#### DERIVATION OF CONJUNCTIONS.

19. A very few are simple words of the language: 'and, if, that'.

Nearly all the words that serve as Conjunctions are appropriated from other parts of speech, chiefly and more immediately from the Adverb and the Preposition.

Adverbial conjunctions: 'also, likewise, then, further, still, only, therefore, accordingly, else, because, since, as, when'. 'Or, nor', are condensations of 'other or either', 'nother or

Prepositional conjunctions: 'but, for, except, after, before, until'. And some of these are fundamentally adverbial.

20. Of all the purposes of forming derivatives, none is of more consequence than the signifying of negation, contrariety, or opposition.

After expressing a thing, quality, or action, we need to have the means of expressing the absence or negation of the thing. This has been largely provided for in our system of Prefixes and Suffixes, but still not adequately; and it is useful to know the circumlocutions that are in reserve when these fail us.

The chief prefixes are, 'dis, in, mis, n, non, re, un', and the suffix is 'less'. The employment of these has been capriciously limited; but the use of negative prefixes to nouns is slowly reviving. Tennyson uses 'disfame, musfaith, unfaith, unfaith, charity', &c.

In some cases we have *separate words* for the opposite of a meaning: 'Light, dark'; 'hot, cold'; 'light, heavy'; 'hard, soft'; 'rich, poor'; 'industrious, idle'; 'north, south'; 'pleasure, pain; 'action, passion'; 'clever, stupid'; 'seeing, blind'.

In technical and scientific language we can prefix 'not'. To signify all colours except white, we may say 'not-white'; 'me. not-me', 'round, not-round'.

The chief circumlocutions are seen in such examples as the following:—'That was the very opposite (or reverse) of candour': 'that would be anything but reasonable'; 'very far from reasonable'; 'his conduct showed a great want (absence) of selfishness'. These forms are often used to avoid the harshness of the other more direct negative forms: 'to relate disagreeable truths of a neighbour is far from innocent'; so, 'far from pretty' is softer than 'ugly'; 'a great want of consideration' is hardly so strong as 'inconsiderate'.

#### 21. Modified Forms.

The following are examples of shortened forms: 'aim' (O. Fr. esmer, Lat. æstimare, 'to estimate'), 'alms' (Gr. ëleëmɔsynē, O. E. ælmesse), 'ant' (O. E. æmet, 'emmet'), 'binnacle' (formerly 'bittacle'; Fr. habitacle, Lat. habitaculum); 'brig' (brigantine), 'bus' (omnibus), 'cab' (cabriolet), 'cad' (cadger), 'change' (exchange), 'censer' (incense), 'cess', (asses), 'cit' (citizen), 'con' (for 'contra', in 'pro and con'), 'consols' (consolidated moneys), 'coz' (cousin), 'drawing-room' (withdrawing), 'dropsy' (formerly 'hydropisy'; from Gr. hydrops, from hydor 'water'); 'furl' ('fardel', bundle up); 'jury-mast, -rudder' (injury); 'larceny' (Lat. latrocinium); 'limn' (illuminate), 'lone' (alone), 'miss' (mistress), 'mite' (minute), mob (O. E. mobile, Lat. mobile (vulgus), 'easily moved, fickle'), 'parrot' (Fr. perroquet), 'phiz' (physiognomy), 'prentice' (apprentice), 'print' (imprint; Fr. empreinte, 'impression', imprimer, 'print'; Lat.im primere); 'purl' (purfle, Fr. pourfiler, 'to overcast with gold thread'), 'sir' (Fr. sire, sieur, Lat. senior), 'size' (assize), 'spite' (despite), 'sport' (desport), 'store' (Fr. estorer, Lat. instaurare); 'tire-woman '(attire); 'story' (history), 'vail' (avail), 'van' (caravan), 'ware' (aware), 'wig' (for 'periwig', itself a corruption of 'peruke', Fr. perruque).

Frequently a word is assimilated to a more familiar form, or otherwise changed: 'acorn (O. E. acern, 'of the oak'; as if

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hair'; the one is the material, without regard to quantity: the other the hair of one horse.

23. Composition of Nouns. Nouns are combined with nearly all the other Parts of Speech; and in a few cases compound nouns are formed by union of two words belonging to other parts of speech.

Nouns with Nouns. - 'Birthday, churchyard, coffeehouse, coppersmith, cornfield, handbook, moonlight, rosebud'. To these we should add 'drawing-room, resting-place, riding-whip, turning-lathe, walking-stick', as the words 'drawing', 'riding', &c., are verbal equivalents to nouns. In 'self-love', 'self' i. substantially a noun.

Sometimes a genitive case-ending is retained: 'craft-s-man, herdsman, kinsman, landsman (compare 'sea-man'); catspaw; deathshead; Thursday'. 'Cynosure' (= dog's tail).

In 'Jack-o'-lantern', 'Will-o'-the-Wisp', 'of' is retained.

'Catamount is a corruption of 'cat o' mountain'. Compare 'aide-de-camp, corduroy (Fr. corde du roi, 'king's cord')', &c.

Nouns with Adjectives: 'fortnight, goodwill, greensward, highland, highway, hotbed, midday, redbreast, stronghold'.

Nouns with Verbs: 'cutwater, daredevil, makeshift, pickpocket, singsong, spendthrift, spitfire, stopgap, turncoat'. In these words the verb governs the noun, and the meaning is some person or thing that performs the action indicated. The same meaning is expressed in another class of words by adding 'er' to the compound: 'landowner, peacemaker, shipbuilder, stockbroker, talebearer'. By suffixing 'ing' the act is expressed: 'shipbuilding', &c. A verb preceded by a noun is rare; as 'godsend'. 'Bloodshed' is participle joined to noun; so are 'ormolu', 'treasure-trove'. 'Bakehouse' exemplifies yet another combination: so 'washhouse, drawbridge, draw-well, grindstone, &c.'. Cp. 'scape-goat'.

Nouns with Adverbs: 'by-play, by-word, forethought, ingathering, instep, lockup, onset, out-going, outlaw, out-rider, sundown, up-rising'. These adverbs are to be distinguished from the same words used as prepositions, as will be seen in the following class.

Nouns with Prepositions: 'forenoon, afternoon'. In these the noun is under government by the preposition. In 'after-thought', the meaning of 'after' is adverbial, something 'thought after'.

Pronoun and Adjective: 'nonesuch'.

Adverb and Verb: 'outlay, thoroughfare'. Verb preceding: 'breakdown, cast-away, drawback, pinafore, run-away'.

Verb and Verb: 'hear-say, hobnob, make-believe'.

Verb and Preposition: 'go-between'.

24. Composition of Adjectives. The chief elements are Adjectives and Participles, with Nouns and (occasionally) with Adverbs.

Noun and Adjective:— 'Bloodred, child-like, fancy-free, heart-whole, pitch-dark, sea-green, snow-white'. The noun in most of these instances adds its meaning to or defines the adjective: 'as red as blood', 'green like the sea', &c. In 'headstrong, heart-whole, sinful', the noun is the subject of reference: 'whole as regards the heart'. Numeral and the noun 'fold': 'twofold'.

Adjective and Adjective: 'pale-blue (blue of a pale shade), red-hot (so hot as to be red)'.

Noun and Imperfect Participle: 'all-seeing, fruit-bearing, heart-breaking, spirit-stirring, truth-telling'. The noun is the object of the transitive participle. It is an adverbial adjunct to the intransitive participle: 'night-walking' is 'walking by night'.

Noun and Past Participle: 'awe-struck, coal-laden, heart-felt, home-grown, moss-grown, moth-eaten, sea-born(e), tempest-tossed, thunder-riven, terror-stricken, vine-clad, weather-beaten, woe-begone'.

In all such cases the noun is really adverbial, being the sole representative of an adverbial phrase: 'awe-struck' is 'struck with awe'; 'home-grown' is 'grown at home', 'ice-built mountains' are 'mountains built of ice'. In 'chapfallen', the participle may agree with the noun, or the noun may be regularly adverbial.

Adjective (complement) and Imperfect Participle: 'clear-sounding, simple-seeming, stern-looking'.

Adjective or Participle and Adverb.—'All-powerful, far-fetched, high-born, highly-wrought, inbred, overcharged, overdone, well-bred, well-meant'.

Verb and Noun.— 'Break-neck (speed), do-nothing (days) '.

Compounds with 'ed', simulating participles:

Noun and Noun: 'hook-nosed, lion-hearted, ox-eyed, '.

Adjective and Noun: 'able-bodied, bandy-legged, foursided, long-headed, Roman-nosed, sober-minded, warmhearted, weak-kneed'.

#### 25. Composition of Verbs.

Noun and Verb: 'back-bite, brow-beat, way-lay'.

Adjective (complement) and Verb: ful-fil, rough-hew, safeguard, vouchsafe, white-wash'.

Adverb and Verb: 'cross-question, doff (do off), don, fore-

tell, gain-say'.

#### 26. Composition of Adverbs.

Noun and Noun: 'length-ways', 'sideways'.

Adjective and Noun: 'always, likewise, otherwise, sometimes, straightway'.

Adverb and Adverb: 'as (= al-so), whereas, thenceforward'.

Adverb and Preposition: 'hereupon, whereby, whereof'.

Adjective and Adverb: 'nowhere, somehow'.

Complex compounds: nevertheless, notwithstanding, moreover.

#### 27. Prepositions are compounded of one another: 'into', 'within', 'without', 'upon', 'throughout'.

'But' (as adverb, preposition, or conjunction) is compounded of 'by' (be) and 'out' (like the Scotch phrase 'out by'). Originally it signified closeness with separation, and its various meanings are in accordance with this.

#### 28. Compounds, disguised and assimilated.

Many words that are really compound have lost the appearance of compounds, and look like simple words; and in other cases, a simple word has been corrupted into a compound form; and it often happens that one or both parts of a real or simulated compound have been assimilated to some other (probably better known) words, with which, however, they have no radical connexion.

'Apricot' (older 'apricock', Fr. abricot, Lat. (malum) præcox, 'early ripe (apple)'); 'as' (O. E. als, alse, eall-swa,
'al-so'); 'ballast' (O. E. bat-last, 'boat-load'); 'barley' (§ 8,
1, (3), (c)); 'barn' (O. E. berern, 'bere-ærn', 'bere-place or
barley-house'); 'bice' or 'bise' (for O. E. asure-bice, Fr. bes-azur, 'an inferior blue'); 'biscuit' (Fr., from Lat. bis coctus, 'twice cooked'); 'bridal' (O. E. bryd-ealu, 'bride-ale or -feast'); 'burglar' (Fr. burglaire, Lat. burgi-latro, 'burg- or house-robber'); 'bustard' (Sp. abutarda, Fr. ou(s)tarde, Lat. avis-tarda, 'slow bird'); 'chaffer' (chap-fare, 'way or course (fare) of bargaining (chap, O. E. ccap)'); 'constable' (Fr. connétable, Ital. conestabile, Lat. comes stabuli, 'count of the

stable', 'master of the horse'); 'cormorant' (Fr.; Ital. corvo marino, 'sea-crow'); 'coverlet' (Fr. courre-lit, 'cover-bed': not a dim. from 'cover'); 'curfew' (Fr. courre-fre, 'cover-fire'); 'daisy' ('day's-eye'); 'every' (O. E. \u03c4 fer-\u03c4c, 'ever-each'); 'futtocks' ('foot-hooks', or 'foot-locks'); 'gospel (O. E. \u03c3od-spell, 'good news'); 'gossamer' ('God's-summer'); 'gossip' (O. E. \u03c3od-spell, 'good news'); 'gossamer' ('God's-summer'); 'gospel (O. E. \u03c3od-spell, 'good news'); 'ground-dwelling or -covering plant); 'groundsil', 'grunsel' (O. E. \u03c3od-syll, 'ground-sill' or -base, threshold); 'halliards' (or 'halyards', 'that is 'haul-'yards'); 'handsel' (O. E. \u03c4and-selan or -syllan, 'hand-t-guve'); 'heifer' (O. E. \u03c4ce, 'stall-cow'); 'huzzy' (O. E. \u03c4bus-wif, 'house-wife'); 'icicle' (O. E. \u03c4s-gicel, 'ice-congealed lump, -cone': cp. Germ. \u03c4sepl'; 'janizary' (Turkish yeni-sisheri, 'new-troops'); 'joopardy' (Fr. \u03c4sepl, artit, lat. 'yous partitus, 'a divided game, an even chance'); 'julep' or 'julap' (Arab. \u03c4ulab, Pers. \u03c4ul-ab, 'ose-water'); 'kerchief' (Fr. \u03c4courre-ch(\u03c4)\u03c4f, 'cover-head'); 'lady' and 'lord' (See Inflexion, Gender, \u03c5 3); 'lammas' (O. E. \u03c4laf, -messe, 'loaf-mass, or-feast'); 'lauprey' (Fr. \u03c4mannewre, Lat. \u03c4mannewre, \

sti (Icel. stia)-weard, 'sty-ward', 'domestic affairs-manager'); 'stirrup' (O. E. sti(ge)-rap, 'mounting -rope'); 'such' (p. 50, § 4); 'tawdry' (said to be for 't. Awdrey, St. Etheldreda); 'threshold' (O. E. threscwald, threswold, 'threshwood'); 'vamp' (Fr. avant-picd) 'vinegar' (Fr. vin-aigre, 'sourwine'); 'viper' (Lat. vipera, for vivi-pera, from vivus-pario (bring forth, alive'); 'walvas' (Corre avallages; from vival as 'bring forth -alive'); 'walrus' (Germ. wallross; from wal, as in 'whale', Germ. wallfisch, and hross, 'a horse'); 'warlock' (O.E. wær-loga, 'treaty-breaker or -liar'); 'wassail' (O.E. wæs hæl, 'be of (good) health', 'your good health!'); 'which' (p. 33, § 13); 'whisky' (Kelt. uisge-beatha, 'water of life'); 'window' (Icel. windauga, 'wind-eye'); 'woman' (O.E. wifman).

'Beef-eater' (corruption of Fr. buffetier, one that attends at

'Beef-eater' (corruption of Fr. buffetier, one that attends at the buffet or sideboard); 'causeway' (or 'causey': Fr. chausée, Lat. calceata); 'Charter-house' (Fr. Chartreuse, 'Carthusian monastery'); 'crayfish' or 'crawfish' (Fr. ecrevisse, Germ. krebiz, krebs); 'lanthorn' (former spelling of 'lantern'); 'lanyard' (or 'laniard'; Fr. lanière, 'thong'); 'pent-house' (O. E. pentice, Fr. appentis, 'sloping shed'; as if from 'pente-house', 'slope-house'); 'pickaxe' (O. E. pikois; the ending assimilated to 'axe'); 'rakehell' (O. E. rakel, rukle, 'rover, rioter'); 'runagate' (for 'renegate, renegade'); 'sparrow-grass' (for 'asparagus'). In Scotch, 'misdemeanours' sometimes become 'misty manners', and 'colocynth pills', in one district at least, are called 'Collieston pills'.

one district at least, are called 'Collieston pills'.

'Bandog' (= 'band-dog', chained dog); 'Bedlam'
('Bethlehem'); 'belfry' (Fr. beffroi; O. Fr. berfroi, Lat. berfredus, belfredus; Germ. bervrit, bercvrit, 'watch-tower, tower for defence'; berg- or burg- friede, from bergen-frieden 'to protect- to watch or defend'); 'Billy Rushian' (Bellerophon); 'blunderbuss' (Dutch donderbus, Germ. donnerbüchse, 'thundergun'); 'brimstone' (= O. E. bren-ston, 'burn-stone'); 'buckwheat' ('beech-wheat'; cp. Germ. buch-weitzen'); 'carnival' (given as carnem vale, 'farewell to flesh', and also as carnis levamen, 'solace of the flesh'); 'catamount' (§ 23); as carnis tevamen, 'solace of the flesh'); 'catamount' (§ 23); 'chance-medley' (for Fr. chaude-melec, 'a hot fight or affray'); 'checkmate' (Fr. échec et mat, Germ. schactmatt, Pers. shah mât, 'the king is dead'. Assimilated to verb 'check'); 'claymore' (Gael. = 'sword-great'); 'cockchafer' (= 'clock'); 'cockchafer' (= 'clock'); 'cockchafer'); 'cockswain' (or 'cockloft' (= 'cob or cop (= top)-loft'); 'cockswain' (or 'coxen', = 'boat-swain'); 'counterpane' (corruption of 'counterpoint', Fr. contre-pointe, for 'courte-pointe, O. Fr. coulte-pointe, from Lat. culcita puncta, 'stitched-cushion'); 'cowslip' (for 'cowsleck': see § 8, 1, (3), (c)); 'coxcomb' ('cock's-comb'); 'cumboard' (for 'cum-hur or (c)); 'coxcomb' ('cock's-comb'); 'cupboard' (for 'cup-bur or bower'); 'curtail' (Fr. court-tailler, 'cut short'); 'domesday-

book' (for domus Dei, 'house of God'. Also derived simply from dom, 'judgment'); 'dormouse' (Fr. dormeuse, 'the sleeping animal'; merely, perhaps, assimilated to 'mouse'); 'everywhere' (for ever-gehwar, ever-ihivar: not from 'every'): 'fieldfare' (O. E. feala-for, fealvor, from its pale yellow or dun (fealu) colour); 'furlong' (O. E. furh- or fur-lang, 'furrowlong'); 'gooseberry' (corrupted from Germ. kraus(el)-beere, 'the rough berry'); 'handywork' (O. E. hand-geweore: not from 'handy'); 'hangnail' (for 'agnail': O. E. angnayl, from ange-nægel, 'sore nail'. The Scotch often use 'ragnail', the broken bits of flesh appearing like rags): 'harbour' (O. E. hereberga, from here-beorgan, 'army-to protect': orig. 'lodging or station for an army'); 'hauberk' (O. Fr. hauberc, O. E. h(e)alsbeorg; from h(e)als-beorgan, 'neck- to protect'); 'hautboy' (or 'oboe': Fr. hautbois, 'high-wood', Ital. oboe); 'humble-pie' (for 'umble-pie', pie made of (h)umbles or numbles (Fr. nombles), entrails of deer; assimilated to 'humble'); 'husband' (O. E. husbonda, 'house-cultivator, -possessor, -master'; cultivator of soil attached to a house); numbles (Fr. nombles), entrails of deer; assimilated to 'humble'); 'husbaud' (O. E. husbonda, 'house-cultivator, -possessor, -master'; cultivator of soil attached to a house); 'jerked-beef' (Chilian charqui); 'Jew's harp' (perh. from Fr. jeu, 'toy'); 'Jerusalem-artichoke' (for Ital. girasole, 'sun'flower'); 'John Dory or Doree' (Fr. jaune dorée, 'golden-yellow'; if not a corruption of il janitore, 'the gate keeper', the fish being so called in the Adriatic, in reference to St. Peter); 'jollyboat' (for 'yawl-boat'); 'keelson' (Dan. kol-svin, or -svill, -syll, 'keel-sill'); 'kickshaw' (Fr. quelque chose, 'something'); 'landgrave' (Germ. land-graf; graf, 'earl'); 'linsey-woolsey' (linen and wool); 'loadstar' or 'lodestar', 'loadstone' or 'lodestone' (from 'lead', O. E. lædan, lad. Perh. in the last case there is also a confusion with 'Lydian stone': cp. 'magnet' = 'magnesian stone'); 'loggerhead' ('log-head'); 'maulstick, mahlstick, mostick' (Germ. malerstock 'painter's-stick'); 'nightingale' (O. E. nihtegale, Germ. nachtigall, 'night-singer'); 'peacock' (O. E. pawa, Fr. paon, Lat. pavonem); 'pea-jacket' (Dutch pije, 'coarse thick cloth'); 'purview' (Fr. pourvu, 'provided (that)'); 'quinsy' (O. E. 'squinancy', Fr. esquinancic, Gr. kyn-angke, 'dog-throttling'): 'rosemary' (Lat. ros marinus, 'dew of the sea'); 'summerset' or 'somersault', &c. (p. 234, 'supra'); 'tit-monse (O. E. tit (little)-mase (little), 'small-sparrow'): 'walnut' (O. E. wealh hnut, 'foreign-nut'); 'Welsh rabbit ('rare-bit'); 'whitlow' (prov. Engl. whickflaw, = qursk-flaw, 'living sore'); 'wiseacre' (Germ. weissager, 'wise-sayer'); 'woodbine' ('bind'); 'wornwood' ('-wort', -wyrt, 'herb, plant'); 'Phrases.—'Cat-o'-nine-tails', 'fail-me-never', 'forget-me-not', 'good-for-nothing', 'hole-and-corner', 'knock-me-down', 'ne'er-do-well'. 'out-of-the-way'.

#### SYNTAX.

Syntax explains the mode of arranging words in sentences.

The Syntax of English is comparatively simple, from the absence of Inflexions.\*

There are three leading processes or principles that regulate the joining together of words into sentences: these are Concord, Government, and Order. The syntax of our language depends principally upon the last; the two first, concord and government, presuppose inflexious, and are wanting in a language according as these are wanting.

Syntax is rendered more simple and intelligible by the analysis of sentences, which ascertains what is common to all sentences, and shows how the different parts are related to

each other.

#### THE ANALYSIS OF SENTENCES.

I. Every sentence consists of two parts, the Subject and the Predicate: 'gold is precious'; 'gold' (subj.), 'is precious' (pred.).

For the purpose of explaining the Parts of Speech, it was necessary at the outset to describe the two principal divisions of the sentence, and the manner of enlarging or extending each of them by the use of qualifying words.

2. Sentences are Simple, Complex, and Compound.

A Simple Sentence contains one Subject and one finite Verb: 'the patience of Job is proverbial'.

<sup>\*</sup> Dr. Johnson, in his grammar, dismisses the subject of syntax in a few lines, remarking that 'our language has so little inflexion or variety of terminations, that its construction neither requires nor admits many rules'.

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The infinitive may have a subject, as well as an object and qualifying words; this is effected by prefixing 'for': 'for a prince to be reduced by villany to my circumstances is calamity enough'. Strictly, however, this is merely an inversion for 'to be reduced is calamity enough for a prince'.

The Object, or completion of the transitive Predicate, having also a Noun for its type, undergoes the same transformations as the Subject: 'the dog follows him'; 'John likes working (or to work)'; 'leave off shrieking, and begin considering'; 'every one likes to hear good news'.

The rule that one verb governs another in the infinitive is merely a way of saying that an infinitive can be the object of a sentence in place of a noun, or that one verb can govern another only when that other is in a noun position: 'I begin to move', means 'I begin the act of moving'; 'to move' is the same as 'the act of moving'.

A verbal Noun may take an object in the form of an infinitive expression: 'his proposal to raise the siege was approved of by the government'. The noun 'proposal' contains the active force of the verb 'propose': 'he proposed to raise the siege, and

this was approved of'.

'To' is not necessary to the infinitive: it is not inserted after the verbs 'have', 'may', 'can', 'shall', 'will', 'do', 'dare', 'bid', 'let', 'make', 'must', 'durst', 'need not', 'feel', 'hear', 'see'. The list might be extended, especially with words of similar meaning: 'wish', 'intend', 'help', 'deign', &c., and by reference to older writers and poets. There are also frequent exceptions. 'To' is dropped after the preposition 'but': 'he did nothing but read'.

- 7. The regular Subject or Object may be Enlarged by all the various means of qualifying or modifying the Noun.
- 1. The Adjective: 'much anxiety shortens life'; 'we met an old soldier'.

This is the regular and usual mode of expressing the attribute of a noun, whether the subject or the object of a sentence. We may include under it the many cases where a noun is used as an adjective: 'stump orator', 'iron duke', 'tram-way', &c.;

and the few cases where an adverb is so used (elliptically): 'the church here', &c.\*

(2.) A Possessive Case: 'the king's prerogative'; 'his death'.

Here the possessive acts the part of the adjective by specifying some individual instance of the thing named by the other noun: 'of all prerogatives, the one here spoken of is the one belonging to the king'.

(3.) A Noun in apposition: 'Havelock, the hero, is dead': 'and David, the king, answered Joab, the captain of the host', &c.

An infinitive phrase may be in apposition as well as a noun. 'The rule, to love thy neighbour as thyself, comprehends our duty to man.'

It is a general principle of language, that words placed together are to be understood as mutually connected, if there be

nothing indicated to the contrary.

(4.) A Phrase made up of a Preposition and a Noun: 'a man of letters' (a literary man); 'the right of pasture'; 'a word in season'; 'the house by the wood'; 'men with wives'.

We may specify a thing by any circumstance of position or relation to other things, which relationship is usually expressed by a preposition: 'the door on your right hand'; 'the property for sale'; 'the church on the hill'; 'the road to ruin'; 'the battle of Hastings'; 'the captain with his men'; 'five of the

\* A phrase formed by the infinitive in 'ing' may sometimes take an adjective; 'that burning the capitol was a wanton outrage'. The similar construction, 'the sending them the light', was objected to by Lowth, who considered that there are two equivalent constructions, and these alone admissible, '(by) sending them', and 'the sending of them': in this last case, 'sending' being a verbal noun. But these are not in all cases equivalent: 'he expressed the pleasure he had in hearing the philosopher' and 'in the hearing of the philosopher', have different meanings.

With a verbal noun we do not now omit the article: 'by (the) observing of this rule you will gain your point'; 'at a or the meeting of council'; 'by (the) comparing of authorities'. The omitting of 'of' after the verbal noun often makes a total change of the meaning: 'the meeting of the council', and 'the meeting the council', are both allowable, but for different significations. 'When the Lord saw it, he abhorred them, because of the provoking of his sons and daughters'; 'because of provoking his sons', and 'because of the provoking his sons': the first 'provoking' is a verbal noun, the second and the third, infinitives.

seven'; 'the chief among ten thousand'. The infinitive being the same as a noun, we may include such cases as 'a desire to rise'. The same remark applies to the gerund: 'a house to let'. Most of such examples are elliptical or contracted expressions: 'the church standing on the hill', 'the road that leads to ruin', &c. 'A man of the world' is 'a man taken out of the world', and therefore experienced in the affairs of the world. The full form shows that the real character of the prepositional phrase is adverbial.

(5.) A Participial Phrase; that is, a Participle, either alone, or having an object, or qualified by an Adverb: 'a man carrying a burden passed a cow quietly grazing'.

The participle qualifies or restricts the noun as an adjective would do. 'The minister, having obtained information of the conspiracy, ordered all those concerned in it to be arrested': the second participle—'concerned in it', restricts or defines 'those', and is therefore a restrictive adjunct; the first—'having obtained', &c., does not define the 'minister', but supposes him to be defined or ascertained already, and imparts additional information respecting him: it is a contracted form of a compound sentence—'the minister obtained information, and ordered', &c. It is a co-ordinating adjunct.

This mode of contracting a compound sentence exhibits one of the characteristic functions of the participle. The participial phrase depends for its subject and for its power of affirmation on the finite clause. 'Having gained our purpose, we departed', is the same as 'we gained our purpose, and we departed'; but in the contraction, the subject of the first clause is omitted, and the form of affirmation dropped. There is a very common error with reference to this construction: thus 'having failed in this attempt, no farther trial was made'. Here the participle 'having' is without a subject, the finite clause supplying a different subject. The mistake probably arises from confounding the co-ordinating participial adjunct with the participle in the absolute construction: it would be correct to say, 'the attempt having failed, no farther trial was made. The participial phrase is then complete in itself.

8. The Subject or the Object may be enlarged by a combination of two or more of these modes; and the adjuncts may themselves be modified by other adjuncts.

(1.) Instead of the simple adjective, we may have an adjective followed by a phrase of reference or of regimen; as 'a man sufficient in himself', 'anxious for nothing', 'desirous to please', 'blameless in his life', 'careless of appearances'.

The most usual case of this construction is when the more remote adjunct implies a reference to something, or indicates in what point or direction the meaning of the adjective is to be taken; thus 'careless' is qualified or limited by stating the exact matter that the carelessness applies to: 'careless in his

person', 'of his money', 'of his life.

When an adjective seems to govern an infinitive like a verb, this is because of its close alliance to some verb; thus, 'desirous to please' scarcely differs from 'desiring to please', which is the infinitive or participle (as the case may be) of 'desire'. For the very same reason a noun may seem to have a regimen, as 'the desire to please'. The pare examples of the great freedom that our language allows in substituting one part of spe ch for another.

(2.) It is very common to have two or more adjectives qualifying the same subject; as 'the deep Stygian recesses', 'the old man eloquent', 'a good and faithful servant', 'the Victoria Hotel Company, limited'. Also the possessive and an adjective may be frequently found conjoined: 'Wellington's Peninsular army'.

(3.) The noun of the prepositional phrase may be qualified by an adjective or the equivalent of an adjective: 'a man of any sense'; 'a pearl of great price'. With or without this qualification, the prepositional phrase may be conjoined with an adjective: 'a grown man of sense'; 'a goodly pearl of great price'; 'a wary statesman in difficult times'.

(4.) The participial phrase may be combined with other qualifications: 'a powerful mind engaged on great problems'. Here 'mind' is restricted both by the adjective and by the participle.

As every noun occurring in a phrase may be the subject of new qualifications, the main subject may be enlarged without any other limit than that of becoming too complicated to be easily understood.

All the attributes that constitute the enlargement of the subject may also be predicated of it, as will be seen presently. Things in the attributive relation to a subject are assumed to belong to it, instead of being predicated of it: 'a valiant man', 'a man of bravery', 'a man having a stout heart', &c., suppose or assume the characteristic of bravery as belonging to a man, and distinguishing him from the rest of men. If this cannot be assumed, and needs to be asserted, we must predicate it; as 'he is valiant, is a man of bravery, is a man of stout heart', &c.

9. The Predicate may be a single Verb, in which case it is called simple; as 'the dog runs', 'the sky brightens'.

The Predicate is called complex when it is made up of a Verb of incomplete Predication and its complement: 'the dog is sugacious'; 'the sky grows clear'; 'he seemed honest'.

The verb 'be' called the copula, is by pre-eminence the verb of incomplete predication. Except in the case where it has its proper meaning of existence, this verb always requires some subject or attribute joined to it to make a complete predicate: 'Pitt was a statesman' (noun); 'the sky is blue' (adjective); 'he is here' (adverb); 'that was of no consequence'

(phrase).

The other verbs of incomplete predication are the intransitive verbs—'become', 'get', 'grow', 'fall', 'live', 'die', 'seem', &c., and the transitive verbs—'can', 'do', 'shall', 'will', 'make', 'call', 'deem', 'think', 'consider', 'choose', 'elect', 'constitute', 'appoint', &c.: 'Napoleon became first consul'; 'he got better'; 'I fell asleep'; 'he grows a man'; 'he grows tall'; 'he seemed clever'; 'I can write'; 'they were elected members'.

The transitive verbs of incomplete predication have two constructions, active and passive. In the passive voice they closely resemble the intransitive; as 'he was made, chosen, elected, appointed, constituted, declared, first consul'; 'he is

thought, deemed, considered, a man of ability'.

With intransitive verbs, and also with transitive verbs used passively, the completion of the predicate is something affirmed of the subject of the sentence: 'he seemed a god', 'the wine tastes sour'; 'the rope is made fast'. Hence the predicate, if a noun or adjective, agrees in case with the subject; in other words, is considered to be in the nominative.

This remark, however, is of very little importance in the English language, since, in the absence of noun inflexions, it can apply only to: the pronouns; as 'I am he'. Even as regards the pronouns, such expressions with the nominative have been called in question by some grammarians, as not in accordance with the genius of our language.

When the verb is transitive, and in the active voice, the complement of the predicate is an attribute of the object of the verb; as 'they elected him captain', 'he left me destitute', 'they made the house secure'. When the complement is a verb in the infinitive ('he can write',), the object is attached to this infinitive: 'he can write French'.

10. The form of Negation is not to be looked upon as enlarging the Predicate: 'the sun does not shine', 'he laughs not', 'the course is now inexpedient'.

Every declaratory sentence either affirms or denies, and the denial is not more complicated than the affirmation. In other words, the negative 'not' is considered a part of the predicate rather than an adverbial enlargement of it: 'he laughs merrily' shows an enlargement of the predicate; not so 'he does not laugh '.

II. The Predicate, if a Transitive Verb, is completed by means of an Object: 'Cæsar conquered Gaul'; 'he defies opposition'; 'they constituted me umpire'.

It has already been seen that the object is of the same nature as the subject. It may be noun, pronoun, or infinitive; it may be enlarged by an adjective, a possessive case, a noun in apposition, a phrase made up of preposition and noun, a participial phrase.

12. The Predicate is enlarged by an Adverb, or an Adverbial phrase: 'he rose early'; 'she sings well'; 'they returned in good order'. These are called Adverbial Adjuncts of the Predicate.

An adverb or adverbial phrase, as has been seen, expresses any circumstance of place, time, degree, certainty or uncertainty, cause, instrument, manner, connected with the action: 'we met in the town'; 'it happened long ago'; 'it concerns us little'; 'assuredly you will find it so'; 'he died of fever'; 'the city was taken by stratagem': 'he cried with a loud voice'; 'the brook murmured pleasantly'; 'he was naturally (by nature) kind'.

- 13. The Adverbial Phrase appears various forms:
- (I.) A Noun: 'we walked a mile'; 'it weighs a pound'; 'they ran a race'.
- (2.) A Preposition and Noun: 'he went of necessity'; 'they watched by day and by night'.

The adverbial adjunct of Preposition and Noun is sometimes

spoken of as the indirect object: 'he gave money to the poor'; 'they accused him of conspiracy, and condemned him to a fine'.

In these examples the verb has a direct object which it governs, —'gave money', 'accused him', 'condemned him',— and what seems a second object required to specify the action completely. But these indirect objects are better viewed as

adverbial adjuncts, qualifying the action of the verb. When we say 'they condemned him to a fine', we indicate by the words 'to a fine' something regarding the manner of his condemnation.

In such constructions as 'they saluted him *Emperor*', some grammarians consider 'emperor' (the completion of the predicate) as a second or indirect object.

(3.) A Noun qualified by some adjunct: 'he rose his height'; 'we arrived last night'; 'let me die the death of the righteous'.

The noun in these constructions is in the objective case. In some instances there is an ellipsis of a preposition: 'we arrived on or during last night'. Also in the case of the simple noun used adverbially,—'they ran a race', the noun is now regarded as in the objective, there being an ellipsis of a preposition. In the expression 'let me die the death of the rightcous', the meaning is 'after the manner that the rightcous die', which is obviously an adverbial signification.

(4.) A Participle or a Participial Phrase: 'they went along singing'; 'he stood gazing on the scene below'.

In most instances this adjunct may be considered as a separate clause contracted into a participial phrase: 'they went along, and sang (as they went)'; 'he stood, and gazed'. For it will be seen that the participle is in apposition with the subject to the verb: 'they—singing', 'he—gazing'.

When the Participle agrees with a Subject different from the Subject of the Verb, the Phrase is said to be in the Absolute Construction: 'the sun having risen, we commenced our journey'; 'this said, he sat down'.

'Then, as a gallant bark from Albion's coast (The storms all weather'd and the ocean cross'd) Shoots into port, &c'.—(Cowper.)

The absolute case, or the case of a detached participial phrase with a subject of its own, differs in different languages, but grammarians have for the most part agreed that in English it is the nominative; accordingly, the following are deemed correct constructions:—

'Then I shall be no more; And Adam, wedded to another Eve, Shall live with her enjoying: I extinct'.—(Milton.)

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we may suppose that the expression 'granting this to be true', is an equivalent of 'this granted'.

The phrase 'generally speaking' may be best explained by supposing an omission of the subject ('I', 'we', or 'one').

(5.) An Infinitive or a Gerund: 'he is a fool to throw away such a chance' (infinitive with prep.); 'the courtier stoops to rise' (gerund).

The infinitive is so closely allied to the noun as to act the part of a noun-phrase when preceded, as it usually is, by the preposition 'to. 'He is a fool', and the manner or circumstance or explanation of his being so is 'for the throwing away of the chance'.

The gerund is known from its expressing end, or purpose: 'What went ye to see?' Hence it is an adverbial adjunct of purpose or intention when following another verb: 'he went abroad to make his fortune'.

### The Complex Sentence.

14. A Complex Sentence, while consisting of one principal Subject and Predicate, contains two or more finite Verbs: 'I saw that something was wrong'; 'no one can say how the thing happened'.

The part containing the principal Subject and Predicate is called the principal clause; the other part, the Subordinate Clause, or Clauses: 'I saw' (principal) 'that something was wrong' (subordinate).

We may have a plurality of subordinate clauses in the same relation to the principal; as 'we were told that the messenger had just arrived, and had seen the general'. This makes a Compound sentence, each member of which is-complex. other times the subordination is carried to the second or even a higher degree; as 'I know not by what fate it comes (1) that he is always against me (2), when I try to rise above the position (3) that I now occuppy (4)'.

15. Subordinate Clauses are of three kinds, according as they are representative of the Noun, of the Adjective, or of the Adverb.

They are thus divided into Noun Clauses, Adjec-

tive Clauses, and Adverbial Clauses.

It has been seen that among the substitutes for the Noun is included a Clause, and so for the Adjective and for the Adverb.

THE NOUN CLAUSE.

## 16. The Noun Clause occupies the place of the Noun.

It may be the subject or object of the Principal Clause: as 'that he had been rash was apparent to all'; 'I saw that the waters had risen'.

The noun clause is, as it were, the expansion or equivalent of a noun or noun phrase: 'his rashness was apparent'; 'I saw the rise of the waters'. 'I wish the happiness of all men' (that all men should be happy).

The Noun Clause may be in apposition to some Noun; as 'the idea that any one should challenge his right had never crossed his mind'.

It may be the completion of the Predicate: 'the consequence was that we achieved a victory'.

When a noun clause is the subject of a sentence it is very common to use the word 'it' as the grammatical subject of the principal verb, and to place the noun clause at the end: 'it is certain that the river may be crossed'. The noun clause is then

in apposition to 'it'.

The objective relation, which belongs properly to verbs, may be sustained also by nouns and adjectives; hence these are sometimes followed by noun clauses: thus, 'there is no proof that he did this'; 'I am sure that this is so'; 'I do this in the hope that he will deserve it'. But, as already remarked (§ 8), these nouns and adjectives have the full force and meaning of verbs: they are the same as, 'there is no evidence capable of proving that he did this'; 'I believe that this is so'; 'I do this because I hope that he will deserve it'.

## 17. Noun Clauses are introduced by 'That', or by some interrogative word: as 'what', 'when', 'whence', 'how', 'why', &c.

'That' is the most usual connective. Properly speaking, it is the demonstrative 'that', followed by a clause instead of a noun: 'I know that'—viz., a certain fact or circumstance affirmed in the noun clause—'we shall soon arrive'.

The conjunction is frequently omitted before an objective clause: 'I fear we shall be late'; 'he said he would do it forthwith'.

The verb 'doubt', preceded by 'not', is sometimes followed by 'but that': 'I do not doubt but that we shall know the whole'. The 'but' in this case is, however, unnecessary and inelegant.

The interrogative connectives are seen in the following examples: 'how it happened is a mystery'; 'you know who I am, and where I came from'; 'we cannot say how America was first inhabited'; 'tell me where I shall find the master'; 'it is uncertain whether he will come'; 'science teaches us why the fall of the mercury portends rain'; 'he asked me how old I was'; 'whoever gives information will be rewarded'.

In such cases the subordinate clause is really a question which the principal clause embodies in some form or other. This

construction is sometimes called the indirect question.

It is interesting to note the contraction of these clauses into infinitive phrases: 'they knew not where to go—what to do—who to look to—how to act—when to begin': 'how not to do it'; 'I believe the man (to be) guilty'; 'he denied having used that expression'.

Instead of the interrogative 'whether', we find the conjunction 'if' sometimes employed: 'he asked *if* that was my opinion'. Being against analogy, and also uncalled for, this

practice should not be followed.

#### THE ADJECTIVE CLAUSE.

18. When a clause limits or qualifies a Noun or Pronoun, it is of the nature of an Adjective: 'men that are selfish (selfish men) never win our esteem'; 'I remember the place that he occupied (the by-him-occupied place; his place)'. Hence these are called Adjective Clauses.

An Adjective Clause may be found in any place of the sentence where a Noun may occur for an Adjective to qualify.

1. With the Subject: 'the rains that have just fallen will do much good'; 'joy that is noisy and intemperate is of short duration'; 'he that sows will reap'.

2. With the Object: 'we met the man that we had seen in the

morning'; 'I love them that love me'.

3. In Adverbial Adjuncts: 'in the day that thou eatest thereof, thou shalt die.

## 19. The Adjective Clause, in its fundamen-

tal restrictive application, should be introduced by the restricting relative 'that', or its equivalents. 'The man that is wise' ('the wise man'); 'uneasy lies the head that wears a crown'.

'The house that Jack built', 'any one that chooses to inquire', 'I want a man that will share my burdens', are constructions with the restrictive adjective clause, and are best introduced by 'that'. The equivalents of 'that' are '(such) as', 'but', 'when', and 'where', with its compounds 'whereof', &c. (pp. 38-46)'. 'A horse such as you want is not easily to be found'; 'he came at the time when I expected him'; 'the son of man had not a place where he might lay his head'; 'the point wherein you are mistaken is this'; 'I know a bank whereon the wild thyme grows'.

When the restrictive relative is in the objective case, it is often omitted: 'I have found the book (that) you want'. We may also say (colloquially) 'this is all ( ) I have'. The omission in the nominative case leads to an ungrammatical construction

(§ 78).

Some attention is necessary to distinguish adjective clauses preceded by 'who', 'what', 'when', 'where', 'wherein', from noun clauses expressing the indirect question: 'tell me where he lives' (noun clause); 'this is the place where he lives' (adjective clause). The adjective clause must always have a

subject which it qualifies. The adjective clause may in certain cases be contracted into an infinitive phrase, thereby becoming more terse: 'the son of man had no place where to lay his head' (no place that he might lay his head in; 'you have no cause to hold my friendship doubtful' (gerund: = no cause why -on account of which-you

should hold, &c.).

The Co-ordinating Adjective Clause, which joins on an additional statement in a convenient way, is best introduced by 'who' and 'which', or their equivalents.

'The prince, who is an excellent horseman, kept his seat'; 'the king, who was more prudent than his advisers, accepted the armistice'; 'let pride, which she calls plainness, marry her'; 'Goethe's heart, which few knew, was as great as his intellect, which all knew'; 'some of the dragoons came up to the hall, where they took possession'; 'the Interrex held office for five days only, when a successor was chosen'; 'he is in the

garden of Naboth, whither he is gone down to possess it. (See

THE PRONOUN, §§ 17, &c.).

When the subject is of itself vague and undetermined, we are prepared for regarding the accompanying clause as restrictive. When, on the other hand, the subject is sufficiently denned, we then look upon the clause accompaniment as adding new facts; in other words, as a co-ordinating clause. This consideration and the context generally, are all that we have to guide us in interpreting the meaning of the relatives 'who' and 'which' in modern English style, where they are used in both the senses now mentioned.

#### THE ADVERBIAL CLAUSE.

20. An Adverbial Clause is the equivalent of an Adverb, and modifies a Verb: 'he went away after the sun had risen' (after sunrise).

Adverbial clauses form the greater number of subordinate clauses, and may be divided into as many classes as adverbs, and, like them, may qualify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs.

(I.) Place: 'we remain where we are'; 'wherever you go I will go'.

Such clauses are introduced by the relative adverbs of place: 'where', 'whither', 'whence', 'wherever', 'whereso-ever', &c. These adverbs both connect the dependent clause to the principal, and also qualify the verb of the dependent clause. Thus, in the expression 'it stands where I placed it', 'where' connects 'I placed it' with 'it stands', and also qualifies 'I placed it' by an adverb of place ('there'): 'I placed it there, and it stands there still'.

(2.) Time: 'he wrote as soon as the news arrived': 'we left while he was speaking'; 'you may go there as often as you please'.

Adverbial clauses of time are introduced by the relative adverbs of time—'when', 'while', 'whenever', and by the prepositions or the conjunctions of time—'before, 'after', 'since', 'ere', 'until', 'as soon as', 'no sooner than', 'just when', 'the moment that', &c.

(3.) Degree: 'the sea is as deep as the mountains are high'; 'the result was greater than I anticipated'; 'the more you have, the more you want'.

There is always some expression denoting comparison in clauses of degree. They are introduced by 'than', 'as', 'the'. They are attached to adjectives and adverbs rather than to verbs; the reason being that degree applies more properly to qualities than to actions: 'he is stronger than I am'; 'he behaves as well as was anticipated'.

These adverbial clauses of degree undergo the peculiar ellipsis seen in such examples as 'lie is as rich as Cræsus (is rich)';

'he works harder than ever (he worked hard)'.

(4.) Certainty or Uncertainty: 'as sure as I speak, you will repent of this'. Here we have merely the phraseology of degree applied to assurance, doubt, or denial.

We may also include under the present head the relation of Condition, introduced by 'if', 'unless', 'except', 'though', 'however', &c.: 'we shall reap if we faint not'; 'though he slay me, yet will I trust in him'; 'however you may try, you will not gain your end'. In sentences containing a condition, the clause expressing the consequence is the principal clause, and the clause expressing the condition, supposition, or concession, is the subordinate clause: 'I will go (principal) if it should rain Duke Georges for nine days' (subordinate).

(5.) Cause or Reason: the garrison surrendered, because their provisions failed'.

These clauses are introduced by the conjunctions 'because', 'as', 'since', &c.

Consequence is expressed by 'so that': 'a storm arose, so that we could not leave the harbour'. For signifying end or purpose, 'that', 'in order that', are employed.

(6.) Manner in general. Among the relations not included in the foregoing heads are likeness, unlikeness, and various unclassifiable modes of action: 'he did as he was told'.

'Manner' is often expressed by an adverbial adjunct containing an adjective clause; as 'train up a child in the way that it should go'. Here the clause 'that it should go' qualifies the noun 'way', and is not an adverbial clause, though occurring in an adverbial adjunct. The words 'mode', 'manner', &c., occur in the same construction. In the sentence 'we should have arrived sooner, but that we met with an accident', the subordinate clause is considered to be a noun clause, governed by 'but' as a preposition; the entire expression ('but' and clause) being simply an adverbial prepositional phrase.

21. The Adverbial Clause is contracted by omitting the Verb, or by changing it into a Participle: 'while (I am) on this part of the subject I may remark'; 'riding (as we rode) through the wood, we met an old man?.

### The Compound Sentence.

22. A Compound Sentence contains two or more (Simple or Complex) Sentences united: 'the sun rose, and the mists disappeared'; 'he came, but we did not see him'; 'he was there, else I should not have seen him'.

In these examples the separate clauses are noways dependent on each other. Either assertion might have been made alone; we might have said 'the sun rose', or 'the mists disappeared', separately, without incompleteness of sense; whereas we could not break up a complex sentence into clauses with independent meaning: 'I will, if I can'. It is true, that when assertions are coupled together in the same period, there is an intention that they should be thought of together, but still they are not such that the one is dependent on the other for a complete meaning.

The co-ordinating conjunctions (Parts of Speech—Conjunction) are so called because they unite co-ordinate clauses.

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23. When the Co-ordinate Clauses of a Compound Sentence have the same Subject, the same Predicate, or any other part in common, we may avoid repeating the common part and thereby shorten or contract the expression of the sentence; as 'the sun gives light and (the sun gives) heat'; 'either you (must go) or I must go'.

One subject may have two or more Predicates, as in the first example now given. One predicate may have a plurality of Subjects; as 'Hannibal and Casar were great generals'.

There may be a plurality of Objects; as 'whosoever shall

leave houses and lands for my sake '.

The Adverbial adjunct of the predicate may be the common part: 'he advances and retires slowly'.

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- III. Give the Predicate Verb. If this be a verb of incomplete predication, state the Complement also.
- IV. When the predicate is a transitive verb, state the Object.
- V. Set down the enlargement, or attributive Adjuncts of the Object.

### VI. Adverbial Adjuncts of the Predicate.

When the various parts may assume different forms, the particular form present should be mentioned.

#### 25. Example :—

- ' Night, sable goddess, from her ebon throne, In rayless majesty, now stretches forth Her leaden sceptre, o'er a slumbering world.
- I. Subject, 'night'.
- II. Attributive adjunct of subject, 'sable goddess', noun in apposition (with adj. adjunct).
- III. Predicate, 'stretches' (or 'stretches-forth').
- IV. Object, 'sceptre'.
- V. Attributive adjuncts of object,

VI. Adverbial adjuncts of predicate,

- { 1. 'her'; possessive adjective. 2. 'leaden'; adjective.
- 1. 'from her ebon throne'; phrase of place, prep. and noun.
  'in rayless majesty'; phrase of
  - manner, prep. and noun.
    3. 'now'; adv. of time.

  - 'forth'; adv. of place.
    'o'er a slumbering world'; phr. of place, prep, and noun.
- 26. 'The neglect to lay down in distinct terms the opposition between the true and the false, has been the occasion of the generally unintelligible character of metaphysics.'
  - I. Subject, 'neglect'.

II. Attributive adjun: ts of subject,

1. 'the'; adj., or article.

- 'to lay down in distinct terms the opposition between the true and the false'; infin. phrase object to the verbal noun 'neglect'. 'Indistinct terms', adverbial adjunct of manner, prel. h r., ic the verb 'to lay down'; 'the (attribute to) o] position', obj. of 'to lay down'; 'between the true and the false', prep. phr., adjunct to 'opposition'.
- 1. Verb of incomplete pred., 'has been '.
- 2. Complement of pred., 'the occasion'; noun, modified by 'of the generally unintelligible character of metaphysics', prep. phr., the noun 'character' being modified by (1) 'the', adj.; (2) 'unintelligible' (adj.), qualified in turn by adv. of extent 'generally'; 'of metaphysics', prepl. phr.

III. Predicate.

27. 'Having first procured guides, we began our ascent of the mountain.'

I. Subject, 'we'; pron.

II. Attributive adjunct \ 'having first procured guides'; coof subject, \ ordinating participial phrase. of subject,
III. Predicate, 'began'.

IV. Object, 'ascent'.

V. Attributive adjuncts § 1. 'our;' poss. adj.

2. 'of the mountain'; prep. phrase. of object,

The attributive adjunct of the subject, 'having first procured. guides', might be further analysed into verb, object, and adverb.

- 28. 'There are twenty men here.'
- I. Subject, 'men'.

II. Adjunct of subject, 'twenty', adj.

1. Incompl. vb.. are '. III. Predicate, 2 Complem., 'here', adv. of place.

'There', originally an adv. of place, has entirely lost its force in this application, and is merely a formal means of allowing the inversion of the sentence.

#### 29. 'He gave me a letter to read.'

I. Subject, 'he'.

III. Predicate, 'gave'.

IV. Object of verb, 'letter'.

V. Adjunct of object, 'a', adj. or article.

VI. Adverbial Adjuncts (1. 'me' (i.e., 'to me'), dative pron. of predicate, 2. 'to read', phr. of purpose (gerund).

#### 30. 'It is vain to pretend ignorance of the fact.'

I. Subject, 'it,' anticipative pronoun.

II. Adjunct of subject, 'to pretend ignorance of the fact'; infin. phr. in apposition.

III. Predicate

{ Verb of incomplete predication, 'is'. Complement of predicate, 'vain', adj.

#### 31. 'Who are you?'

I. Subject, 'you', pron.

III. Fredicate.

Verb of incomplete predication, 'are'. Complement of predicate, 'who' pronoun.

#### 32. In France there was less material for the Reformers to work upon.'

I. Subject, 'material'.

II. Adjunct of Subject, 'less'; adj. III. Predicate, 'was' (= existed).

VI. Adverbial Adjuncts of Pred.:

1. 'in France'; phr. of place, prep. and noun.

'for the Reformers'; prepl. phr. of purpose or benefit.

3. 'to work upon'; phr. of end or purpose, gerund.
 4. 'there'. May be set down as formally adverbial, but has

become a mere help to inversion. (§ 28).

The expression 'for the Reformers to work upon' may also be regarded as a contracted equivalent to an adj. clause limiting 'material'; as if 'less material that the Reformers might work upon'.

### 33. 'Two may keep counsel, putting one away.'

I. Subject, 'two' (see explanation below).

1. Incompl. verb, 'may'. III. Predicate. 3. Complem. '(to) keep'; infin.

IV. Object (of Compl. Infin.), 'counsel'.

VI. Advl. Adjunct of Pred., ' putting one away'; phr. of condition, impersonal participle (§ 13, (4).).

Strictly, the Subject is 'persons' understood; and 'two', a numeral adj, is limiting Adjunct to the Subject. So 'one' in strictness limits 'person', which is left unexpressed, because easily supplied by every hearer. The omission of the noun throws the force of it upon 'two', which may therefore be allowed to stand as subject.

34. 'Respecting ourselves, we shall be respected by the world.'

I. Subject, 'we', pron.

II. Adjunct of Subject, 'respecting ourselves', co-ordinating participial phrase, with the force of an advl. expression of condition modifying the principal clause; = 'if or since we respect ourselves, &c.

- III. Predicate, 'shall be respected'.
  VI. Advl. Adjunct of Pred., 'by the world'; prepl. phr. of agency.
- 35. 'Leaning my head upon my hand, I began to figure to myself the miseries of confinement.'

I. Subject, 'I'; pron.
II. Adjunct of Subject, 'leaning my head upon my hand'; co-ordin. partl. phr. The participle 'leaning' has obj. 'head' (limited by the poss. adj. 'my'), and advl. phr. of place or position 'upon my head' (prepl.).

III. Predicate, 'began'

- III. Predicate, 'began'.
  IV. Object, 'to figure', infin.
  V. Adjuncts of Object, 2. 'to myself'; advl. phrase of end, prepl.
- 36. 'Partakers in every peril, in the glory shall they not partake?'

I. Subject, 'they'; pron.
II. Adjunct of Subject, 'partakers in every peril'; noun in apposition, with the force of an advl. expression of cause or reason, modifying the principal clause := 'seeing that they have been' partakers—have partaken—in every peril'.

The noun 'partakers' is limited by 'in every peril', a prepl. phrase that is formally adjective but really advl., the noun partakers' having the force of the verb 'partake', as is seen in

the equivalent lengthened expression just given.

{ 1. Incompl. verb, 'shall not', (negative). 2. Complem. '(to) partake', infin. III. Predicate,

VI. Advl. Adjunct of Pred., 'in the glory', prepl. phr. of reference.

- 37. 'To impose fresh taxes on England in defiance of law would, at this conjuncture, have been madness.'
  - I. Subject, 'to impose'; infin.

II. Adjunct of Subject:

1. 'fresh taxes': obj. to 'to impose'.

'upon England'; advl. prepl. phr. of end.
 'in defiance of law'; advl. prepl. phr. of opposition.

{ 1. Incompl. vb., 'would have been'. 2. Complem., 'madness'; noun. III. Predicate.

VI. Advl. Adjunct of Pred., 'at this conjuncture'; prepl.

phrase of time.

The Adjuncts of the Subject in this example are in the usual forms of the Object and the Adverbial Adjunct of the Predicate. The reason is that the subject is, not a noun, but the Infinitive of a transitive verb. Compare the Adjunct of the Object in § 35.

### Complex Sentences.

38.—Form of Analysis.—These are to be analyzed in the first instance as if each subordinate clause were a single word or phrase. The subordinate clauses are then to be analyzed separately.

#### EXAMPLES CONTAINING NOUN CLAUSES.

- 39. 'That he committed the fault, could be judged from his looks.'
  - I. Subject, 'that he committed the fault', noun clause (a).

{ Verb of incompl. pred. 'could'. Complement of predicate, 'be judged'. III. P. dinte.

VI. Adverbial adjunct of predicate, 'from his looks', prepl. phrase of means or cause.

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'he'.

III. Predicate, 'committed'.

IV. Object, 'fault'.

V. Adjunct of object, 'the'. The conjunction 'that' does not enter into the construction of the dependent clause.

#### 40. 'I told him that we should be there'.

I. Subject, 'I'.

III. Predicate, 'told'.

IV. Object, 'that we should be there', 'noun clause, (a).
VI. Adverbial adjunct of Predicate, 'him', = 'to him', \*\* phrase of direction.

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'we'.

III. Predicate,

\{\bar{Vb. of incompl. pred., 'should be'.}\} Complement, 'there', adv. of place.

In these constructions the practice has been to term 'him' the indirect object of the verb, but we may also regard it as an adverbial word indicating a circumstance connected with the act of telling. It is important to compare this example with the following.

#### 41. 'I strongly warned him that disaster would follow such perversity'.

I. Subject, '1'.
III. Predicate, 'warned'.
IV. Object, 'him'.

VI. Adverbial Adjuncts of Predicate: 1. 'strongly', adv. of' degree. 2. 'that disaster would follow such perversity', noun clause (a), used as advl. expression of reference.

#### Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'disaster'.

III. Predicate, 'would follow',

IV. Object, 'perversity'.

V. Adjunct of object, 'such', adj.

'That' introduces the noun clause and connects it with the

principal.

Here 'him' is the direct object of 'warned'. We might say 'I told or mentioned the fact that we should be there'; but not 'I warned the fact that disaster would follow'. Hence in the one case the noun clause is the real object of the verb; in the other case it is not the object, and must be considered as modifying the predicate.

'I dreamt that I dwelt in marble halls'. 'Dreamt' may be regarded as transitive, = 'thought in a dream'; in which case the noun clause, 'that I dwelt in marble halls', is the object. If 'dreamt' be regarded as intransitive, the noun clause is used

as an adverbial expression of reference.

42. It is singular that you should make that mistake.'

I. Subject, 'it'.

II. Adjunct of Subject, 'that you should make that mistake', noun clause in apposition, (a).

III. Predicate.

Verb of incomplete predication, 'is'. Complement of Pred., 'singular, adj.

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'you'.

III. Predicate, 'should make'. IV. Object, 'mistake'.

V. Adjunct of Object, 'that', demonstr. adj.

The first 'that' is merely the formal word introducing the noun clause.

The apposition is more impressively brought out by the stronger pronoun 'this'. 'We know this, that in three campaigns we have done nothing'. Compare also the following 'example.

- 43. 'Morality is deeply interested in this, that what is immoral shall not be made attractive.'
  - I. Subject, 'morality'.

III. Predicate,

1. Incompl. verb, 'is'.

2. Complem., 'interested', adj.

VI. Advl. Adjuncts of Predicate:

 'deeply', adv. of degree.
 'in this', prepl. phr. of reference, the reference being given in 'that what is immoral shall not be made attractive', noun clause (a) in apposition to 'this'.

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'what is immoral', noun clause (a2).
(1. Incompl. Verb, 'shall not',

negative.

III. Predicate,

2. Complem., 'be made attractive', itself an incomplete infinitive with adjective complement.

'That' introduces the noun clause.

Analysis of  $(\alpha^2)$ .

I. Subject, 'what'.

III. Predicate,

1. Incompl. verb, 'is'.

2. Complem. 'immoral', adj.

- 44. 'Tell me how you are.'
- I. Subject, 'you' (understood).

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- 47. 'They brought home numerous evidences that the expedition had been successful.'
  - I. Subject, 'they', pron.

III. Predicate, 'brought'.

IV. Object, 'evidences'.

V. Adjuncts of Object:

 'numerous', adj.
 'that the expedition had been successful', noun clause, (a), object to 'evidences' (in consequence of the verb force contained in it; for 'evidences' = 'objects, &c., evidencing or proving'. See § 16.).

VI. Advl. Adjunct of Predicate, 'home', = 'to home', phr.

of place.

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'expedition'.

II. Adjunct of Subject, 'the', adj.

1. Incompl. verb, 'had been'. III. Predicate, 2. Complem., 'successful', adj.

'That' introduces the noun clause.

- 48. 'I felt certain that the expedition would be successful.'
  - I. Subject, 'I'.

1. Incompl. verb, 'felt'. III. Predicate,

2. Complem., 'certain', adj.

IV. Object, 'that the expedition would be successful', noun clause (a); the pred. 'felt certain' being the same in force as 'firmly believed', or some such regular transitive verb form. (See § 16).

Or, the noun clause may be regarded as an Advl. adjunct of Predicate, explaining what it was in reference to that 'I felt

certain'. (Compare § 41, end.).

#### EXAMPLES CONTAINING ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

- 49. 'The hill that you see in the distance commands a fine prospect.'
  - I. Subject, 'hill'.

II. Adjuncts of Subject, { 1. 'the', adj., or article. 2. 'that you see in the distance', adjective clause, (a).

III. Predicate, 'commands'.

IV. Object, 'prospect'.

V. Adjuncts of Object, \{\frac{1}{2}. 'a', adj. or article.

#### Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'you'.

III. Predicate, 'see'.

IV. Object, 'that', relative pronoun.

V. Adjunct of Object, 'in the distance', prepl. phrase; really adverbial, modifying a verb implied, as 'standing, rising, stretching away in the distance'; and the adjunct is co-ordinating.

#### 50. 'Who was it that told you.'

I. Subject, 'it'.

II. Adjunct of subject, 'that told you', adjective clause (a).

J Verb of incompl. predication, 'was'. III. Predicate. Complement of predicate, 'who'.

#### Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'that', relative pronoun.

III. Predicate, 'told'.

VI. Adrl. Adjunct of Predicate, 'you', = 'to you', prepl. phrase of direction or benefit.

#### 51. 'The labour we delight in physics pain.'

I. Subject, 'labour'.

II. Adjuncts of Subject: { 1. 'the', adj. 2. '(that) we delight in', adj. clause (a).

III. Predicate, 'physics'.

IV. Object, 'pain'.

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'we', pron.

III. Predicate, 'delight'.

VI. Advl. adjunct of Predicate, '(that) in' (= 'in which'), prepl. phrase of reference or cause.

#### 52. 'Such kings as regard not the solemn promises they make are dangerous.'

I. Subject, 'kings'.

1. 'such', adj.
2. 'as regard not the solemn pro-II. Adjuncts of Subject: mises they make', adj. clause(a).

III. Predicate: { 1. Incompl. verb, 'are'. 2. Complem., 'dangerous', adj. Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'as', relative pronoun (adverbial equivalent to 'that' or 'who').

III. Predicate, 'regard not', negative.

IV. Object, 'promises'.

V. Adjuncts of Object:

'the', adj.
 'solemn', adj.

3. '(that) they make', adj. clause ( $a^2$ ).

Analysis of  $(a^2)$ .

I. Subject, 'they', pron.

III. Predicate, 'make'.

[IV. Object, 'that', rel. pron., understood.]

53. 'We saw the place where the Jacobite standard was raised.'

Here the object, 'place', is qualified by the adjective clause 'where the Jacobite standard was raised', which is analyzed thus:—

I. Subject, 'standard'.

II. Adjuncts of Subject, \{\frac{1}{2}. 'the', adj. or article. \}\ \text{Jacobite', adjective.}

III. Predicate, 'was raised'.

- VI. Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate, 'where'; relative adv. of place (= 'in which', or 'that-in').
- 54. 'The judges of the common law, who held their situations during the pleasure of the King, were scandalously obsequious.'

I. Subject, 'judges'.

II. Adjuncts of Subject:

'the', adj.
 'of the common law', prepl. phr.

3. 'who held their situations during the pleasure of the

King', adj. clause, co-ordinating, (a).

This co-ordinating adj. cl. has the force of an adverbial adjunct of cause or reason: 'The judges were obsequious, for (because, seeing that, &c.,) they held their situations during the pleasure of the King'. (Cf. p. 34, bottom, §18.)

of manner and degree and effect or consequence.

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject. 'who', rel. pron.

III. Pred., 'held'.
IV. Object, 'situations'.

V. Adjunct of Object, 'their', poss. adj.

VI. Advl. Adjunct of Predicate, 'during the pleasure of the King', prep. phr. of time and condition.

#### EXAMPLES CONTAINING ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

55. When I look upon the tombs of the great, every emotion of envy dies in me.'

I. Subject, 'emotion'.

II. Adjuncts of Subject, { 1. 'every', adj. 2. 'of envy', adv. phr., prep. and noun.

III. Predicate, 'dies'.

VI. Adverbial Adjuncts { 1. 'in me', prepl. adv. phr., place. of Predicate, 2. 'when I look upon the tombs of the great', adverbial clause (a).

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'I'.
III. Predicate, 'look upon'.

IV. Object, 'tombs'.

V. Adjuncts of Object, \{\begin{aligned} 1. 'the', adj. or art. \\ 2. 'of the great'. prep. adj. phr. \end{aligned}

VI. Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate, 'when', adv. of time.

The predicate might also be given as simply 'look' (intrans. verb). 'Upon' is then a prep., and 'upon the tombs of the great' is a prepl. phr. of place and direction modifying 'look'.

#### 56. 'He is proud that he is noble.'

Principal clause, 'he is proud'.

Subordinate adverbial clause, '(that) he is noble'.

The expression 'that he is noble' signifies the reason, the 'why', of his being proud ('because' might have been used instead of 'that'), and is therefore an adverbial clause.

#### 57. 'He ran so fast that I could not overtake him.'

Principal clause, 'he ran so fast'.

Subordinate adverbial clause (attached to the adverb 'so', which it modifies or defines), 'that I could not overtake him'.

I. Subject, 'he'.

III. Predicate, 'ran'.

VI. Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate, 'fast' (adv. of manner), modified by 'so' (adv. of degree), which is modified by 'that I could not overtake him', advl. clause.

#### Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'I'.

\ Incompl. verb 'could not', negative. \ Compl. of pred., '(to) overtake', infinitive. III Predicate,

IV. Object, 'him'.

VI. Adverbial Adjunct of Predicate, 'that'.

'That' here is not primarily a conjunction, but the equivalent of an adverb; 'he ran so fast, and so, or, by that, I could not overtake him '.

58. This example may be compared with the following:—'He spoke loud, that I might hear him.'

Principal clause, 'he spoke loud'.

Subordinate adverbial clause, 'that I might hear him'.

In this case, 'that' is still adverbial, qualifying the verb of the subordinate clause; it is equal to 'so as', and states the

circumstance, manner, or means of my hearing him.

If we employ 'in order that' as the connective, the case is different; the clause 'that I might hear him' is then a noun clause qualifying 'order'. (Mason, art. 354.) But 'in order that' may be taken as a phrasal conjunction.

59. 'The sea is as deep as the mountains are high.'

Principal clause, 'the sea is as deep'.

Subordinate adverbial clause, 'as the mountains are high'.

I. Subject (with adjunct), 'the sea'.

Verb of incomplete predication, '1s'. III. Predicate, Complement of predicate, 'deep'

VI. Adverbial adjunct of complement of predicate, 'as' (adv. of degree), modified by 'as the mountains are high', advl. clause of degree (a).

Analysis of (a).

I. Subject, 'the mountains'.

§ Verb of incomplete predication, 'are'. III. Pred ate. Complement of predicate, 'high'.

VI. Advl. adjunct of compl., 'as', relative adv. of degree.

60. It is only through their adverbial force that some conjunctions enter into the construction of the dependent clause.

In adverbial clauses introduced by the subordinating conjunctions 'if', 'though', 'because', 'that', &c., the conjunction does not enter into the construction of the clause. It is the adverbial conjunctions, 'when', 'where', 'whenever', 'wher-

- ever', 'as', &c., that are considered as qualifying the subordinate clause introduced by them.
- 61. 'We must not think the life of a man begins when he can feed himself.'

Principal clause, 'We must not think' (A).

Subordinate noun clause, '(that) the life of a man begins' (a). Adverbial clause subordinate to (a), 'when he can feed himself'  $(a^2)$ .

Here we have subordination of the second degree, and the

whole may be symbolically expressed  $(A+a+a^2)$ .

#### Compound Sentences.

62. The Co-ordinate Sentences are to be analyzed separately, and the link of connexion indicated. These separate sentences, when complex, are to be analyzed as such.

'The house fell, and great was the fall thereof'. [A] 'The house fell; [B] great was the fall thereof'. 'And' connects [A] and [B].

'He goes [A], (but) it is intended that I should remain

till I grow stronger  $[B+b+b^2]$ .

#### Contracted Sentences.

- 63. In these the omitted parts must be expressed at full length, after which the analysis proceeds as above.
- 'Frogs and seals live on land and in water'. Here there are four sentences. 'Frogs live on land'; 'frogs live in water'; 'seals live on land'; 'seals live in water'.
  'I am the first and (I am) the last.'

In the following example the contraction takes place in the subordinate part of a complex sentence: 'when a man is from necessity his own tailor, tent-maker, carpenter, cook, huntsman, and fisherman, it is not probable that he will be expert at any of his callings'. So in this: 'say first, for Heaven hides nothing from thy view, nor the deep tract of Hell'.

Again: 'In all times and in all places, man has sought to

understand the language of nature'.

64. Let us present an analysis of the following compound sentence:-

'The theory of the Mahometan government rests upon the maintenance of a clear separation from the unbelievers; and to propose to a Mussulman of any piety, that the Commander of the Faithful should obliterate the distinction between Mahometans and Christians would be proposing to obliterate the distinction between virtue and vice: the notion would seem to be not merely wrong and wicked, but a contradiction in terms.'

Analysis of sentence:—A. 'The theory—unbelievers'.

I. Subject (with adjuncts), 'the theory of government'.

III. Predicate, 'rests upon'. (Compare 'look upon': § 55.)

IV. Object (with adjuncts), 'the maintenance—unbelievers'.

B. 'To propose-virtue and vice'.

I. Subject, 'to propose'. infinitive.

II. Adjuncts of Subject:

1. 'that the Commander—Christians', noun clause (b).

2. 'to a Mussulman of any piety', advl. phrase (prep. and noun) of end or direction.

§ Verb of incompl. p.ed., 'would be'. III. Predicate. Compl. of pred., 'proposing', infin.

IV. Object of verb, 'to obliterate', infinitive.
V. Adjunct of Object: 'the distinction between virtue and vice', object (with adjuncts) to infin. 'to obliterate'.

#### Analysis of (b).

I. Subject (with adjuncts), 'the Commander of the Faithful'. III. Predicate, 'should obliterate'.

IV. Object (with adjuncts), 'the distinction between Mahome-

tans and Christians'.

The third division of the sentence is greatly contracted. The full expression is: 'the notion would seem to be not merely wrong [c] and (the notion would seem to be not merely) wicked [D], but (the motion would seem to be) a contradiction in terms? [E]. Sometimes such an expression as 'wrong and wicked' may be viewed as a compound predicate, the two words being intended to convey but one notion to the mind. 'And' connects A and B, C and D; 'but' connects E with C and with D, being anticipated by 'not merely'; there is no connecting link expressed between B and C. 'That' connects b and B.

#### Elliptical Sentences.

65. Ellipsis is the omission of some part essential to a complete construction for the sake of brevity and strength. What is left is regarded as suincient to convey the intended meaning.

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#### 70. 'He has written more letters than you.'

In full, 'he has written more letters than you have written many letters'; 'he has written many letters more ('many more', or 'more many', = more, or many-er)—then you have written many letters'.

#### 71. 'He does not write so well as you.'

'He does not write so well as you write well.' 'As' modifies the second 'well', in correspondence with 'so' modifying the first 'well'. 'He does not well so (in that degree) as (in which degree) well you write.'

#### 72. 'I would as soon die as suffer that.'

'I would as soon die, as *I would soon* suffer that.' In other words, 'I would die as soon as soon I would suffer that'. The 'as—as' here is precisely similar to the 'so—as' in the preceding example (§71).

73. 'As', after 'such' and 'same', employed as equivalent to the restrictive relative, is a case of ellipsis.

'The house is not such as I want.' 'The house is not such a house as I want a house.' 'A house I want is so, the house is not such' (or so-like, or 'like to that'). The full correspondence was well given by the ancient 'such—such'.

#### 74. 'I am not such a fool as to believe that.'

In full, 'I am not such a fool as I should be a fool to believe that'. 'I should be a fool to believe that (if I were to believe that).' 'I am not a fool such (or so, or 'like that', or 'to that degree') as (in which degree) a fool I should be to believe that.'

#### 75. 'Our habits are costlier than Lucullus wore.'

'Than Lucullus wore costly habits', or 'than the habits were costly that Lucullus wore'. 'Our habits are costly more—then costly habits Lucullus wore.'

76. 'Moderation in the use of food is a better remedy than medicine for an oppressed state of the circulation.'

'Than medicine is a good remedy.'

77. To resolve a compound sentence into the simple or complex sentences composing it, often enables us to detect a fault in its construction.

'Because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison and let out again only yesterday.' As it stands, the sentence is resolvable into these two: 'because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison', and 'because he had committed a crime, he was let out only yesterday'. It should be, 'because he had committed a crime, he was shut up in prison; and he was let out again only yesterday'; or, 'and it was only yesterday that he was let out again'.

78. A Relative Pronoun, as subject, is frequently omitted in poetry, not often in prose.

In the sentence, 'there was a man showed me the way', the analysis will determine exactly what is wrong. There is but one subject, 'man', to two finite verbs, making up two distinct assertions. Now this is admissible only in a compound contracted sentence; but the form of such a sentence would be 'a man was there and showed me the way'. Every assertion, and consequently every finite verb, must have a subject, and every subject must have a predicate or finite verb. The insertion of the relative would supply a subject to the second verb in the above sentence. Further instances: 'there is a garden goes along with the house'; 'who was it took the news to Hall Farm?' 'haply I see a man will save my life'; 'now who be ye would cross Lochgyle?'

#### CONCORD.

I. The general principles or processes regulating the grammatical union of words in sentences are three in number—Concord, Government, and Order or arrangement of words.

When two connected words are of the same Gender, Number, Person, or Tense, they are said to agree with one another, or to be in Concord. Speaking of a man we have to say he, of a woman she, of a plurality of persons, they; these are agreements or concords.

In point of fact, these concords are already taught under Etymology. We have seen that 'he' means a man, 'she' a woman, &c.; that when a noun is in the plural, there is a peculiar inflexion of the verb to correspond with it ('they call', not calls), and also a certain inflexion of the demonstrative adjectives ('these, not this, houses'). Hence the expressions, 'the trees grows', 'those sort of things', are errors of Etymology as well as of Syntax. What is left to Syntax is merely to explain some difficult and doubtful cases, where we are not quite sure what the person, number, gender, or tense of a word really is.

#### Concord of Subject and Verb.

2. A Verb must agree with its Subject in Number and in Person; and the Subject of the Verb is always in the Nominative Case.

The verb and the subject, being both spoken of the same thing, must agree with each other; if they did not, there would be a contradiction in terms. If 'John' is the name for one individual, and 'write' is the form that predicates the action, 'writing', for a plurality of individuals, then 'John write' is a

discord, or wrong combination.

This rule is seldom transgressed in short sentences except by persons altogether untaught. Such expressions as 'says I', 'he do', 'we sees', 'the shops is not open', are mistakes of the grossest kind. But in longer sentences, where several names occur, the verb is sometimes inadvertently referred to what is not the real subject. The following are examples of the kind of structure refered to: 'the origin of the city and state of Rome is involved in great uncertainty'; 'the momentary junction of several tribes produces an army'. These are correct; but many instances of errors arising in similar constructions could be produced. For example: 'his reputation was great, and somewhat more durable than that of similar poets have generally been'. 'Railroads seem now, however, to be likely to supersede most other methods of conveyance, in so far, at least, as the transit of goods and passengers are concerned.' 'The patronage which the British Colonies affords to the home government is immense.' 'The lighting and cleaning of the streets is not nearly so good as in the large towns of England.' 'The opinion of several eminent lawyers were in his favour.'

3. Collective Nouns, though Singular in form, take a Plural Verb if the Predicate applies to the objects taken individually; as 'the peasantry go barefooted, and the middle sort make use of wooden shoes'; 'one half of men do not know how the other half live'

When what is affirmed of the noun is an action that can be true of the whole mass in its collective unity, the verb is then singular; as 'the fleet is under orders to set sail'. When we say 'the British nation has not sprung up in a generation', we speak of the nation as a collective organized whole. So 'the House (of Lords, or of Commons) resolves'; 'the Assembly has decreed'; 'the Senate is of opinion'; 'the army was disorganized'; 'the mob was dispersed'; 'the invading force (army and fleet) was in progress towards Attica'; 'one fourth of the men at the diggings is composed of convicts'.

Contrast these with the cases where the predicate applies to the individuals of the collection acting separately. 'The people of the rude tribes of America are remarkable for their artifice and duplicity.' Here what is affirmed applies to the individual Americans acting singly and apart. 'The generality of his hearers were favourable to his doctrines'; 'the public are often deceived by false appearances and extravagant pretensions'—meaning the members of the community taken individually; 'a considerable number were induced to quit the body'. The-following sentence sounds awkward, but it is strictly correct: 'The Megarean sect was founded by Euclid, not the mathematician, and were the happy inventors of logical syllogism, or the art of quibbling' (Tytler). In the first part, the sect is spoken of in its collective capacity; and, in the second, as individuals. 'There is a certain class of men who never look', &c., may be justified on the same ground. So 'the people is one, and they have all one language'. The pronoun before the second verb is a great improvement. 'Their cattle was their chief property; and these were nightly exposed to the southern Borderers' (Scott).

There are a few cases where usage is not invariable. In speaking of small bodies, such as those indicated by a Board, a Commission, a Council, a Court, the plural verb is frequently used: 'the Board are of opinion'; 'the Committee consider'; 'the Court are disposed'. This may be explained on the ground that the members in a body of, say two, three, or six, stand forward more prominently in their individual capacity, whereas in an assembly of three hundred, the individual is entirely merged in the collective vote.

The following examples are incorrect:—'The meeting were large' (would mean that it was composed of large men); 'Stephen's party were entirely broken up'; 'mankind was not united by the bonds of civil society'; 'the Church have no power to inflict corporal punishments'; 'in this business the House of Commons have no weight'; 'a detachment of two hundred men were immediately sent'; 'one man of genius

accomplishes what a crowd of predecessors has essayed in vain'; 'not one fourth of provincial tradesmen or farmers ever take stock; nor, in fact, does one half of them ever keep account-books deserving of the name'. The following is at least inconsistent: 'when a nation forms a government, it is not wisdom, but power, which they place (it places) in the hands of the Government', &c. A judge charging a jury, vacillated in the construction of the word 'Court', thus: 'It was satisfactory to the Court to find that it would be incumbent on them, &c.

The Court, therefore, in the discharge of their duty.

The Court believe.

The Court is not entirely satisfied with the finding of the jury.

The Court, in the sentence which it is about to pronounce by my mouth', &c.

When the form of a noun is plural, but the meaning singular, a singular verb is generally preferred: 'this news is not true'; 'no pains is taken'; 'the wages of sin is death'." 'The Pleasures of Memory was published in 1792, and became at once popular.' The pronoun in the following should be singular: 'His (Thomson's) Seasons will be published in about a week's time, and a most noble work they will be'. Johnson says 'my Lives are reprinting', which it might be harsh to alter, owing to the great prominence of the notion of plurality. In the next example the singular idea of distance is prominent: 'By my valour, then, Sir Lucius, forty yards is a good distance. Odds levels and aims! I say it is a good distance.' (Rivals). 'Nine-tenths of the miseries and vices of mankind proceed from idleness' (Carlyle); the verb is plural, because predicating about a number. But 'nine-tenths of the misery and vice of mankind proceeds from idleness'; the verb being singular, because the subject expresses, not plurality of number, but an amount or quantity.

But those nouns that have plural forms on account of a plurality of the subject, such as 'bellows', 'scissors', 'snuffers', 'lungs', 'ashes', &c., are more usually found with plural verbs

'lungs', 'ashes', &c., are more usually found with plural verbs. Although we should say, 'there are two, there are three', yet usage permits in familiar language the singular contracted form, 'there's two or three'.—(Craik, English of Shakespeare).

4. If the subject consists of two or more nouns (or equivalents of nouns) united by the conjunction 'and', the Verb must be put in the plural: 'John and James are in the field'; 'Mars and Jupiter are visible'.

<sup>\*</sup> Dr. Angus would prefer the plural, as least likely to call attention to the mere grammar of the sentence: 'the means used were not commendable'; 'great pains were taken'.

#### Exceptions and Peculiarities.

- (1). If the nouns are names for the same subject, the plurality is apparent only, and not real. The verb is then singular.
  - 'A laggard in love and a dastard in war Was to wed the fair Ellen of brave Lochinvar.'
    'This murderous chief, this ruthless man,

This head of a rebellious clan,

Hath led thee safe.'

- 'The spectator and historian of his exploits has observed.'
  'When the Duke died, his son and namesake and successor was an infant.' With inversion: 'so says the wisest poet, and perhaps the wisest statesman and politician of antiquity'. (Chatham).
- (2). In cases where the two names are almost synonymous, or denote objects closely connected together, or express different views of the same fact, or are used chiefly for the sake of emphasis, there is still a kind of unity in the subject, and the verb is often made singular.
- 'Wherein doth sit the dread and fear of kings'; 'the head and front of my offending hath this extent'; 'the hardship and exposure of a savage life speedily destroys those who are not of a robust constitution'; 'why is dust and ashes proud'? 'What is the use and object of building pinnacles'? (Helps). 'The peace and good order of society was not promoted by the feudal system' (Hallam). 'The very scheme and plan of his life differed from that of other men.' (Ecce Homo). condition and growth of Attic comedy before this period seems to have been unknown even to Aristotle' (Grote). general defence of the country and the maintenance of order among the inhabitants was entrusted to Saganos, who was invested with the revenue necessary for the purpose' (Finlay). 'The language and history of the Lithuanians is closely connected with that of the Greeks' (Freeman). 'To recover Silesia, to humble the dynasty of Hohenzollern to the dust, was the great object of Maria Theresa's life' (Macaulay). The first object involved the second; hence 'was', not 'were'. With this compare the following: 'to exalt the Lancastrian party, to depress the adherents of the house of York, were still the objects of his pursuit' (Hume). Looked at broadly, the two objects were substantially the same, and 'was' might have been used; at the same time 'were' directs attention forcibly

to each of the two sides of the same fact. In the next example, the subject is given twice; first, more generally, and then with some detail and explanation: 'that the fair prospects which had begun to open before the king were suddenly overcast, that his life was darkened by adversity, and at length shortened by violence, is to be attributed to his own faithlessness and contempt of law' (Macaulay).

In many such cases it is not easy to draw the line and decide when the subject is singular and when plural. But it is always undesirable to vacillate between the two. Thus: 'neither on the one side nor on the other was there the strength and unity of action which result from single and undivided aims' (Trench); with a deep insight into life, and a keen and comprehensive sympathy with its sorrows and enjoyments, there is combined [in the lyrics] that impetuosity of feeling, that pomp of thought and imagery which belong peculiarly to Schiller' (Carlyle). Fair and softly goes far'; 'poor and content is rich enough'.

(3). A singular verb may sometimes be justified on the ground of an ellipsis.

'The whole book, and every component part of it, is on a large scale' (Macaulay). With the most common cases of ellipsis, there is also inversion of subject and verb. 'There was a hen and (there were) chickens in the court'; 'there was racing and (there was) chasing on Cannobie Lea'; upon this there was a fearful cry from heaven, and great claps of thunder' (W. Irving); 'such was the intelligence, the gravity, and the self-command of Cromwell's warriors' (Macaulay); 'where is Lysander and sweet Hermia'? (Shak.).

When the same noun is coupled with two adjectives, so as to mean different things, there is a plurality of sense, and the plural is required: 'in the latter also religious and grammatical learning go hand in hand'; 'the logical and the historical

analysis of a language generally in some degree coincide'.

When a verb separates its subjects it agrees with the first, and is understood of the rest: 'the earth is the Lord's, and the fullness thereof'. See also the cases of 'as well as', and 'every', at end of § 4.

The last examples under (2) are very elliptical.

(4). Sometimes a compound subject is named by aunion of the names of its chief parts; and then the 'verb is singular.

Another exception to the general rule is exemplified in the following constructions: 'the wheel and axle was out of repair';

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taken prisoners'. The sense requires the plural, but grammatically the subject is singular. The king, with the lords and commons, constitute (or constitutes) our government'; the purse, with its contents, was found on the person of the thief'.

The true solution of the difficulty is to employ 'and' if the sense is plural. The phrase 'with his men is an adjunct of 'captain', being as much as to say 'accompanied with his men', and should be used only when the attention is concentrated upon him; in which case the verb is regularly singular. If the men are also to be formally predicated about, we should say 'the captain and his men were'. So: 'the king, the lords, and the commons constitute our government'.

'As well as' for 'and'.—Nouns coupled by 'as well as' take the singular or the plural according to the context.

If the predicate is meant to be affirmed of both, the plural is employed, the phrase being then a synonyme for 'and':

! Pompey as well as Cæsar were great men '.

But if the 'as well as' merely quotes an illustrative comparison, the predication must then be understood as confined to the first noun: 'Africa as well as Gaul was gradually fashioned by imitation of the capital'; that is, by ellipsis, 'as well as Gaul had been fashioned by imitation of the capital', 'after the manner of Gaul'. 'His curiosity, as well as his anxiety, was highly excited': we are supposed to know that his anxiety was more or less excited, and now, when his curiosity alone is spoken of, his anxiety is referred to for illustration. 'The opulence of the monks, as well as the number of them, in the time of Henry II., was enormous.'

The last case is the original and strictly proper application

of 'as well as'.

'Every' with connected subjects.—The strong individualizing force of 'every' affects the number of the predicate verb.

It has been doubted whether we could say 'every officer and soldier claim a superiority in regard to other individuals'; or even 'every officer and every soldier claim'. Plurality is certainly implied, but there is a disagreeable effect produced by joining 'every' with a plural verb, and we might take shelter under the elliptical usage, and say 'every officer (claims) and every soldier claims'. The singular verb is powerfully favoured by the decisively singular meaning of 'every'. On the same ground, we must uphold the expression, 'every clergyman and

every physician is a gentleman'. So we may defend the following: 'it has been observed by writers on physiognomy, that every emotion and every operation of the mind has a corresponding expression of the countenance'; 'every limb and feature appears with its appropriate grace'.

5. Two or more Singular Nouns, connected by 'or' or 'nor', implying that they are separately taken, must have a Singular Verb: 'John, James, or Andrew intends to accompany you'; 'neither this nor that is the thing wanted'.

Such sentences are always contracted co-ordinate sentences, and their construction is singular. So in the example, 'my poverty, and not my will, consents', there is a contraction: 'my poverty consents, but my will does not consent'. The omission of the connective makes no difference if the meaning is

the same: 'a word, an epithet, paints a whole scene'.

Sometimes 'or' is used when the real meaning would require 'and'. 'To win or to lose (at cards) is unpleasant.' Here there is a partial alternation of meaning from the circumstance that we cannot both win and lose at the same time; still the sense is that both the one and the other are unpleasant. If we were speaking of one game, where we must either win or lose, the 'or' is suitable; but speaking generally it would be better to say 'winning and losing are both unpleasant'. So: 'life or death, felicity or lasting sorrow, are in the power of marriage' (Jer. Taylor); 'disobedience, desertion, mutiny, or theft were visited with death'; 'death, emigration, or personal slavery, were the only alternatives' (Freeman). In an instance above quoted (hanging and beheading. &c.) we might have a third form: 'hanging or beheading is the punishment of treason', to show still more decisively that the judge must sentence a man to one, and not to both.

'Nor heaven nor earth have been at peace to-night' (Shak.). Dr. Craik remarks on this passage, that where, as here, the two singular substantives are looked at together by the mind, it is more natural to regard them as a plurality, and to use the plural verb, notwithstanding the disjunctive conjunction. Compare: 'neither the king nor either of his two oldest sons are permitted to leave the island' (Swift); 'neither peace nor war, nor summer nor winter, were a season of repose' (Gibbon); 'neither Kent nor Sussex were among the greatest of the kingdoms which our forefathers founded in Britain' (Freeman); 'neither Mr. Adderley nor Mr. Roebuck are by nature inaccessible to considerations of this sort' (M. Arnold). Notwithstanding such

examples, the singular verb has most reason on its side; the occasional use of the plural seems to testify to a considerable tendency to use this form after two or more subjects, even though the conjunction connecting these may indicate that they are to be predicated about in separation.

When one of two subjects separated by 'or' or 'nor' is in the plural, the verb should be plural: 'he or his servants were to blame'. It is proper in such cases to place the plural nominative

next the verb.

### 6. When the Subject is a Relative Pronoun, the Antecedent determines the number of the verb: 'all ye that pass by'.

The following is a common error:—'That is one of the most valuable books that has appeared in any language'. The antecedent to 'that' is 'books', not 'one'. So: 'this is the epoch of one of the most singular discoveries that has been made among men' (Hume); 'I resemble one of those animals that has been forced from its forest to gratify human curiosity' (Goldsmith).

'O Thou my voice inspire Who touched Isaiah's hallowed lips with fire.'

But for the exigencies of the verse, Pope would have written 'touchedst'. The dropping of the inconvenient inflexional ending is not uncommon in poetry. Pope has several more

examples.

The phrase 'as follows', applied to a plural antecedent, is now a settled usage. If 'as' were a true relative pronoun, there would be a breach of concord; but we must consider the expression as now substantially adverbial, like 'as regards', or 'so far as concerns'. Perhaps the construction suitable to the most common case, the third person singular, has been extended to all cases. Or 'as' may be regarded as equivalent to 'in the manner that'. It is not uncommon for speakers and writers to seek the appearance of grammatical correctness by using 'as follow'.

7. When two or more Pronouns of different persons, are connected by Alternative Conjunctions, there is much difficulty in deciding the form of the predicate verb.

Dr. Latham lays down that,

(1) where the Pronouns are singular and are preceded by 'either' or 'neither', the verb is in the third person: 'either he or I is in the wrong'; 'neither he nor I is in the wrong'.

And (2) when the Pronouns are not preceded by 'either' or 'neither', the verb agrees with the first: 'I or he am in the wrong'; 'he or I is in the wrong'; 'he or you is in the

wrong'.

It is open to grave doubt whether the verb depends so entirely upon the 'either' and the 'neither'. Among other suggestions, the most important is that the verb should agree with the nearest of the subjects. All difficulty is obviated when the predicate verb is uninflected: 'can, will, sent, grew, planted,

Further examples: 'neither you nor any one else can save her'; 'either the Prior or thou has made some singular alterations' (Scott); 'those are far more able to give your son help than either you or I are' (Scott); 'nothing which Mr. Pattison or I have said disprove, &c.' (M. Arnold); 'I hope neither my fellow nor I am thieves' (Massinger).

8. When the completion of the Predicate is a Noun, it may not be always apparent what is the real subject, seeing that the order is not decisive.

Hence the expression 'his pavilion were dark waters and thick clouds of the sky', may be justified on the ground that the sentence is inverted, 'pavilion' being the completion of the predicate, and not the subject.

#### Concord of Adjective and of Pronoun with Noun.

9. Pronominal Adjectives in English being alone inflected, questions of concord are confined to them.

The rules for the Concord of the Demonstratives 'this' and 'that' are the same as for the Concord of the Subject and the Verb: 'these means are-this means is—not enough'.

When we decide that a noun should have a plural verb, we must apply the same rule to the demonstrative adjectives (and pronouns) agreeing with it. The word 'means' furnishes the chief doubtful instance; and we may either adopt the suggestion of making it uniformly plural, on account of the form, or look to the sense, and consider it plural when we have a plurality of agencies involved.

Such expressions as 'this forty years'. 'this many summers', are defended on the ground that a period of time may be treated as a unity Or 'this' may be really plural, a surviving instance

of one of the old forms of 'these'.

10. The Distributive Adjectives, 'each', 'every', &c., are joined to a Singular Noun, and consequently the Verb is singular: 'every tree is known by its fruits'.

The following are examples of a not uncommon error: 'neither of the sisters were very much deceived' (Thackeray's Vanity Fair). 'Neither of my brothers do anything to make this place amusing' (Virginians).

They also take a Singular Pronoun when applied to one Gender: 'England expects every man to do his duty'; 'it seems natural that every mother should suckle her own child'.

But when both Genders are implied, it is allowable to use the Plural: 'let each esteem other better than themselves'.

Grammarians frequently call this construction an error: not reflecting that it is equally an error to apply 'his' to feminine subjects. The best writers furnish examples of the use of the plural as a mode of getting out of the difficulty. 'Every person's happiness depends in part upon the respect they meet in the world' (Paley). 'Every one must judge of their own feelings' (Byron). 'If the part deserve any comment, every considering Christian will make it to themselves as they go' (Defoe). 'Everybody began to have their vexation.' 'Everybody around her was gay, was busy, prosperous, and important: each had their objects of interest, their part, their dress, their favourite scene, their friends and confederates.' 'Had the doctor been contented to take my dining tables, as anybody in their senses would have done' (Miss Austen).

Sometimes strict grammar is preserved thus: 'Everybody called for his or her favourite remedy, which nobody brought'. But this construction is felt to be too cumbrous to be kept up, as we see in the following example:—'The institution of property, reduced to its essential elements, consists in the recognition, in each person, of a right to the exclusive disposal of what he or she has produced by their own exertions', &c. (J. S. Mill). 'The heart is a secret, even to him (or her) who has it in his own breast' (Thackeray). A very ingenious device is seen in the following example: 'either a horse or a mare has lost its shoe'.

No doubt there are more instances of the employment of 'his', but it must by no means be maintained that this form is exclusively right.

The following examples further illustrate the preference of the plural when both genders are involved: 'if an ox gore a man or a woman so that they die'. 'Not on outward charms should man or woman build their pretensions to please' (Opie). 'If I value my friend's wife or son, on account of their connexion with him' (Angus). 'When either party fix their attachment upon the substantial comforts of a rental, or a jointure, they cannot be disappointed in the acquisition' (Scott). 'My lord says that nobody wears their own hair' (Thackeray). 'If the fool, or the pig, are of a different opinion, it is because they only know their own side of the question' (J. S. Mill).

#### Concord of Tenses.

II. There is also a certain congruity of Tenses to be observed.

Contemporaneous actions should be expressed in the same tense.

In the narration of past events, the writer for the most part uses the past tense; but, in order to recount vividly a rapid series of exciting incidents, he may for the occasion pass to the present tense,—called, in this application, the *historic* present. He is not permitted, however, to flit between the two. The following is a harsh incongruity: 'Fierce as he moved, his silver shafts resound'.

### The Subordinate Tenses and the Principal Tense must not conflict.

'He affirmed that he will (for 'would') go to-morrow'; 'he hid himself lest he shall (for 'should') be impressed'. 'It were well for the insurgents, and fortunate for the king, if the blood that was now shed had been thought a sufficient expiation for the offence'; 'it had been well' is the tense suiting 'had been thought'. 'If you please to employ your thoughts on that subject, you would conceive the miserable condition many of us are in'; this should be either 'if you please, you will', or, 'if you pleased (it pleased you), you would'.

The use of the present indefinitive tense to express a proposition true for all time, is an apparent exception. We say 'Galileo maintained that the earth moves' (not 'moved'); the fact of the motion of the earth being true at all times and not being restricted to the time implied in 'maintained'. 'He denied

that gold was (for 'is') the most precious metal.

All night long the northern streamers Shot across the trembling sky:
Fearful lights, that never beacon,
Save when kings or heroes die.

#### GOVERNMENT.

I. Government means the power that a word has to regulate the Case of a Noun or a Pronoun; as when a Pronoun coming after a Preposition takes the objective form: 'after me' (not 'after I'), 'to him' (not 'to he').

There being only one case inflexion in English nouns, and that occurring only in a limited number, the rules of government apply principally to pronouns.

2. The Possessive of Nouns (and of Pronouns) signifies personal possession or agency.

Preceding a Noun, a possessive noun (or pronoun, or pronominal adjective) expresses that the object belongs to or is somehow connected with the person whose name or designation is given in the possessive word.

'John's house' is 'the house possessed by John; owned, occupied, built, &c., by John'. 'John's gospel' is 'the gospel proclaimed or written by John, or named after him'. 'Poor's rates' are 'rates levied for the support of the poor'. The meaning of possession or belonging is often stretched to include very remote connexions.

Preceding an Infinitive Phrase, a possessive word indicates the subject of the action of the verb.

'I am surprised at John's (or his, your, &c.) refusing to go.'

Very frequently the participle is found in place of the infinitive, in which case the objective is used in place of the possessive:

'I am surprised at John (or him, you, &c.) refusing to go'.

The latter construction is not so common with pronouns as with nouns, especially with such nouns as do not readily take the possessive form. 'They prevented him going forward': better 'they prevented his going forward', or 'they prevented him from going forward'. 'He was dismissed without any reason being assigned': this shows the influence of Latin construction. 'The boy died through his clothes being burned'. 'We hear little of any connexion being kept up between the two nations'. 'The men rowed vigorously for fear of the tide turning against us before we reached our destination':

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(Shak.) 'Who should I meet the other day but my old friend?' (Steele). 'My son is going to be married to I don't know who'. (Goldsmith). 'Who have we here?' (Goldsmith, &c.).

Even the relative 'whom' is sometimes shortened to 'who'.

'The shepherd . . . who you saw sitting by me on the turf' (Shak.). 'The remaining place was engaged by a gentleman who they were to take up on the road' (Thackeray). Macaulay (Essay on Croker's Boswell's Life of Johnson) denounces the following as a solecism: 'Markland, who, with Jortin and Thirlby, Johnson calls three contemporaries of great eminence'.

#### 4. The Verb 'be' has the same case after it as before it: 'it is I'; 'ye are they'.

This follows from the principle adopted from the classical languages that when the complement of the predicate is a noun,

it is of the same case as the subject.

Most grammarians have laid down this rule. Macaulay (as just cited, § 3) censures the following as a solecism: 'It was him that Horace Walpole called a man who never made a bad figure but as an author'. Thackeray (Philip, I. 16) similarly adverts to the same deviation from the rule: "Is that him?" said the lady in questionable grammar'. But notwithstanding this, we certainly hear in the actual speech of all classes of society such expressions as 'it was me', 'it was him', 'it was her', more frequently than the prescribed form. 'This shy ereature, my brother says is me'; 'were it me, I'd show him the difference' (Clarissa Harlowe). 'It is not me\* you are in love with' (Addison). 'If there is one character more base than another, it is him who'&c. (Sydney Smith). 'If I were him'; 'if it had been her'; &c. The authority of good writers is strong on the side of the objective forms. There is also the analogy of the French language; for while 'I am here' is 'je suis ici', the answer to 'who is there?' is 'moi' (me); and 'c'est moi' (it is me), is the legitimate phrase, never 'c'est je' (it is I.)+

<sup>\*</sup> It may be confidently affirmed that with good speakers, in the case of negation, 'not me' is the usual practice.

f 'It is remarked by Dean Alford that 'it is I' is suitable to an occasion of dignity; as 'He said unto them, 'It is I; be not afraid'.' 'Who does not feel that here there is a majesty and prominence given by the nominative person; which makes the assurance what it was to the disciples? But from this very prominence it is that we shrink in ordinary talk. We shelter ourselves in the accusative case "me," which, though ungrammatical, yet is acquiesced in, as better suiting the feeling of the mind. We all remember the story of George III. reading Paley's fable about a pigeon, and exclaiming "Why, that's me!" The king was just

5. In certain other cases the Objective often occurs where the Nominative is expected.

Similar to the foregoing is the case with regard to the use of me, him, &c., after the conjunctions 'than', 'as', &c., in whose favour there is the authority of an extensive if not predominating usage. 'He is taller than me.' 'No mightier than thyself or me', (Shaks.).\* 'She was neither better bred nor wiser than you or me' (Thackeray).

'Satan, than whom

None higher sat.

Perhaps 'whom' is the uniform usage; 'than who' seldom or never occurring. Of course, in all these cases, when the ellipsis is filled in, the nominative necessarily replaces the objective

form: 'no mightier than thyself or I am mighty'.

The construction 'nobody said so but him', is defended by some grammarians on the ground that 'but' is a preposition as well as a conjunction. Still 'but he' is of frequent occurrence: 'no man hath ascended up to heaven but he that came down from heaven'; 'there is none justified but he that is in measure sanctified'. 'Every one can master a grief but he that hath it' (Shak.); 'within that circle none durst walk but he' (Dryden). Compare:

> 'I do entreat you, not a man depart, Save I alone, till Antony hath spoke' (Shak., Jul. Cas.).

#### ORDER OF WORDS.

I. The most general principles of the arrangement of words are, that what is to be thought of first should be metioned first, and that things to be thought of together should be placed in close connexion.

as right in the expression of the interpretation, as he was in the interpretation itself. He could not have said, "Why, that's I".'—Good Words, March, 1863,

\* On this Dr. Craik remarks; 'Of course, in strict grammar, it should be than I. But the personal pronouns must be held to be, in some measure, emancipated from the dominion or tyranny of syntax. Who would rectify even Shelley's bold

"lest there be No solace left for thou and me"?

The grammatical law has so slight a hold that a mere point of euphony is deemed sufficient to justify the neglect of it. – English of Shakespeare. The effect of euphony appears to be well illustrated also in Shak., Macb., III. iv.: 'Tis better thee without than he within'.

In inflected languages, the connexion of one word with another is indicated by means of inflexions. The English, on this point, trusts chiefly to position; and hence the order of words in a sentence is more fixed in English than in the classical languages.

#### Subject and Verb.

2. The Subject precedes the Verb: 'the earth moves', 'the stars twinkle'.

#### Exceptions.

1. When a question is asked, without an interrogative pronoun in the nominative case: 'are ye alone?' 'when did he come?' 'may we go in?' 'what will he do?' But 'who said so?' 'what is to be done?'

2. With the imperative mood: 'come ye'; 'laud ye the

gods'; 'look thou to that'.

3. In the conditional mood, when the conjunction is suppressed: 'had I known that'; 'were I in his place'.

4. When a wish or exclamation is expressed: "may she be happy'; 'how would we wish that Heaven had left us still-';

'ah! mayest thou ever be what now thou art!'

5. When 'neither' or 'nor', signifying 'and not', precedes the verb: 'this was his fear, nor was the apprehension groundless'. 'Dr. Lancaster was desirous to serve a boy of such promise; nor was an opportunity long wanting.' 'He will not go; neither will I.'

6. In introducing the parts of a dialogue: 'said he'; 'thought

I'; 'replied James'.7. For the sake of emphasis; as when a sentence is introduced by 'there', 'here', or other adverbial expressions: 'up started he'; 'now abideth faith, hope, charity'. 'On the distant mainland is seen the town or village of Stromness' (Scott). 'Above, below and behind the city, as far as the eye can reach, extends the unbroken forest' (A. R. Wallace). 'Over the crushing vines, over the desolate streets, over the amphitheatre itself, far and wide. with many a mighty splash in the agitated sea, fell that awful shower' (Lytton).

The Complement of the predicate follows the predicate verb.

'The day is clear', 'kings are but men', 'this question is of the utmost importance '.

When the complement is a noun, we distinguish it from the

subject by its position: 'angels are spirits'.

Inversion for emphasis.—The usual order is not unfrequently inverted, especially in poetry, for the sake of effective statement: 'Fair laughs the morn'; 'all bloodless lay th' untrodden snow'; 'great is Diana'; 'bitter but unavailing were my regrets'. 'Childe Harold was he hight.'

#### Verb and Object.

3. The Transitive Verb precedes its Object: 'we gained a victory'; 'you did not see me'.

#### Exceptions.

1. When the objective is a relative or interrogative pronoun, or a noun limited by a relative or interrogative adjective: 'this is the letter that he wrote'; 'the dead which he slew at his death were more than they which he slew in his life'; 'what does the man want?' 'which house do you prefer?'

2. For emphasis: 'treason and murder he had been taught early in life to expect from everybody'; 'talent I will marry, for

talent I adore'; 'what I did I did in honour'.

3. For the sake of closer connexion with a previous sentence. This inversion always put emphasis on the object. 'His passions and prejudices had led him into a great error. That error he determined to recant.' 'He insisted upon my asking pardon for affronting his king and him. This proposal I would

by no means comply with.'

This inversion cannot often be practised in English, on account of causing ambiguity. Apart from the context, our only means of knowing which is subject and which is object is the order; hence the following expressions are of themselves uncertain: 'when thus the son the fervent sire addressed'; 'when Thebes Epaminondas rears again'; 'and all the air a solemn stillness holds'. Inversion is admissible when either the subject or the object is an inflected pronoun: 'two men I know', 'me their swords encompassed'. Also when subject and object differ in number, and the verb shows its agreement with the subject: the sentence 'death lays all men low' may have its parts arranged in any order without loss of clearness. 'Wars into peace he turns' combines both conditions.

In the construction of verbs of 'giving', 'sending', 'telling', with the pronoun 'it', the personal adjunct is placed last: 'give it me'; 'tell it him'; 'he sent it us'. The form 'give me it'

is a Scotticism.

#### Noun and Adjective.

4. The Adjective immediately precedes the Noun: 'bright prospects'.

#### Exceptions.

1. When the adjective is accompanied by another adjective: as 'a man just and wise'; 'across the meadows bare and brown';

gods partial, changeful, passionate, unjust'.

2. When the adjective is enlarged by qualifying phrases: as 'a question too important to be neglected'; 'a patriot disinterested in a high degree; 'in other words, the country was to be absolutely governed by a hereditary aristocracy, the most needy, the most haughty, the most quarrelsome in Europe'. Hence the adjectives 'adverse', 'afraid', 'conformable', which require an enlargement to make complete sense, always follow the noun they qualify.

In poetry the adjective is often placed last: as 'the garden fair', 'my own mother dear', 'the primrose pale'.

A few expressions, including certain titles of French origin, almostly uniformly show the inverted arrangement: 'Prince Regent', 'Heir Apparent', 'Poet Laureate', 'Governor-General', 'States General', 'court martial', 'time immemorial', 'knight errant'.

The most general direction is to keep the noun and its qualifying adjuncts as close together as possible.

Accordingly such sentences as the following are ill arranged: 'the death is announced of Mr. Henry Archer, inventor', &c.; the country beyond which the arts cannot be traced of civil society or domestic life'; 'the ignorance of the age in mechanical arts rendered the progress very slow of this new invention'; 'the legitimacy is conceded of repressing violence or treachery'; 'I cannot blame thee, who am myself attacked with weariness' (Shak.); 'this way will direct you to a gentleman's house that hath skill to take off these burdens' (Bunyan).

When the enlargements are of great length we are to avoid entangling them with other parts of the sentence.

In the following passage some of the adjuncts precede, and the others follow, the noun :- 'Born to inherit the most illustrious monarchy in the world, and early united to the object of her choice, the amiable Princess, happy in herself, and joyful in her future prospects, little anticipated the fate that was so soon to overtake her'.

Sometimes the enlargement is resumed after the verb.

The spirit of Francis Bacon was abroad; a spirit admirably compounded of audacity and sobriety.' 'Ye shall die, all of you.' 'The emperor, nominally invested with the loftiest of titles, was, in fact, no more than the head of a confederacy of secular and ecclesiastical princes; the head of a body whose members were seldom in harmony.' The only course left was to imitate the fatal policy by which the empire had invited its own doom while striving to avert it; the policy of matching barbarian against barbarian.'

We are always disposed to take the word preceding a substantive as a word modifying it; and hence our facility in using nouns and phrases adjectively.

'A gold ring'; 'a carriage gentleman'; 'the house-to-house visitation'. Strictly regarded, these are highly condensed or elliptical expressions, interpreted by their juxtaposition: 'a ring made of gold'; 'a gentleman that rides in a carriage'; 'visitation from house to house'.

The three first, or the first three? Great doubt exists as to which of these expressions is correct. Difficulties seem to attach to both. When we say the three first, it is asked, how can three be first? and when we say the first three, we seem to imply that this should be followed by a second three, a third three, and so on. The form most commonly used is the 'first three'; 'the first six books of Euclid'; 'the first ten men you meet', 'the first forty years of the century', But there are occasions when good writers think the other form preferable; thus, 'the three first gospels'; 'the two eldest of the family'; 'the six nearest your hand'; 'the fathers of the five first centuries'. 'I have not numbered the lines except of the four first books' (Cowper). We may conceive the ground for the distinction on some such principle as this. Suppose a number of persons waiting for admission to a public spectacle. The manager wishes to give waiting for admission to a public spectacle. The manager wishes to give directions as to the order of admission. Now if we suppose it settled beforehand that three shall be admitted at a time, the only question remaining is which three, to which the answer is the three first. But if it be understood that they are to be admitted in the order that they stand in, the question is how many at a time, and the answer is the first three. The place of special emphasis is the second word, the first three, the three first. This is indicated in the phrase, 'the first six books of Euclid'; for it is taken for granted that in geometry the order of proceeding is fixed, and the only inquiry that remains is, how many books are prescribed: the first two, the first four, the first six. In speaking of the 'three first gospels', it is supposed that a division is made of the gospels into two groups (there might be more if the number were greater); and that the first group contains three, and the second group one. The question then is supposed to be put - where are the three situated, and where the one? and the reply is, the three first, the one last; or it might have been the two first, the two last. If, as in Euclid, it had been necessary to study the gospels in a fixed consecutive order, the question would then have arisen, how many go to make the first division? and we might have said the first two, the first three, as many actually do say.

#### 5. The placing of the Article.

The rule of most practical importance as to the articles is to this effect: When two or more substantives following each other denote the same object, the article is placed only with the first:

as ' $\alpha$  (or the) secretary and treasurer', the two offices being held by the same person. On the other hand, when the substantives denote different objects, the article is repeated before each: as 'the secretary and the treasurer'. Violations of this rule are frequent. 'The old and new method' is wrong; but we may say correctly 'the old and new methods', 'the Old and New

The following are examples of the rule :- 'He shall come again with glory to judge both the quick and the dead'; 'by their tumultuous election, a Syrian, a Goth, or an Arab was exalted to the throne of Rome, and was invested with despotic power over the conquests, and over the country of the Scipios'; 'he had compassion on the poor and needy'; 'a cool head, un unfeeling heart, and a cowardly disposition, prompted him, at the age of nineteen, to assume the mask of hypocrisy, which he never after laid aside'.

The incorrect construction is seen in these examples:—'When therefore the chief priests and (the) officers saw him'; 'some of the most sacred festivals in the Roman ritual were destined to indulge the pious remembrance of the dead and (the) living'.

'He made a better soldier than a poet', means a better soldier

than a poet would make.

The same principle applies to the repetition of other words, as prepositions, conjunctions, &c.: 'eternity invests every state, whether of bliss, or of suffering, with an importance entirely its own'; 'I speak as a father and as a friend'.

#### Pronoun and Antecedent.

#### 6. Every Pronoun should have a distinct Antecedent.

When there are two words in a Clause, each capable of being an antecedent, the determining circumstances are Proximity and Importance.

1. As regards proximity: 'Solomon, the son of David, who

slew Goliath'. Here the relative 'who' refers to the word immediately preceding,—'David'. 'John gave James the book: he was very much in want of it', i.e., James, the last mentioned.

2. As regards importance: 'Solomon, the son of David, who built the temple', might be justified on the ground that 'Solomon' is the principal subject, and 'the son of David' is morely an apprecition or appleadance which should not merely an apposition or explanatory clause, which should not interfere with the reference of the relative to Solomon. In fact Solomon-the-son-of-David is, as it were, a many-worded name.

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'A very good man'; 'extremely hard work'. 'He behaves very well'; 'he works extremely hard'.

The Adverb is placed after an Intransitive Verb. 'She dances well'; 'they work hard'.

When the verb is transitive, the Adverb usually follows the Object.

'He treated them handsomely'; 'I met him very unexpectedly'; 'bring the letter instantly'.

When the object is either emphatic or long (by means of adjuncts), then a short adverbial expression is best placed between the Transitive Verb and the Object.

'He imparts without reserve secrets of the highest moment.' He explains with perfect simplicity vast designs affecting all the governments of Europe.' 'The Captain whispered something in Sir Roger's ear, that lasted till the opening of the fifth act': here the object 'something' precedes the adverbial phrase, but is separated by it from the limiting adjective clause that ends the sentence. The arrangement suggested renders the sentence compact: 'the Captain whispered in Sir Roger's ear something that lasted till the opening of the fifth act'. In cases like the following the adverbial expression is liable to be attached wrongly to the subordinate predicate: 'He might be seized by any one that met him as a robber' (Hallam). Rearrange: 'he might be seized as a robber by any one that met him'.

The Adverb is placed between Auxiliary and Participle.

'I have gently hinted my intentions'; 'I shall never forget your kindness'; 'he has carefully studied the case'.

The most general rule is to place Adverbs, and Adverbial Adjuncts, or qualifying circumstances, so as to affect what they are intended to affect.

8. The word requiring most attention is only.

According to the position of 'only', the very same words may be made to express very different meanings.

(1.) 'He only lived for their sakes.' Here 'only' must be held as qualifying 'lived for their sakes', the emphasis being on

'lived', the word immediately adjoining. The meaning then is 'he lived', but did not work, did not die, did not do any other thing for their sakes.

(2.) 'He lived only for their sakes.' 'Only' now qualifies 'for their sakes', and the sentence means he lived for this one reason, namely, for their sakes, and not for any other reason.

(3.) 'He lived for their sakes only.' The force of the word when placed at the end is peculiar. Then it often has a diminutive or disparaging signification. 'He lived for their sakes', and not for any more worthy reason. 'He gave sixpence only', is an insinuation that more was expected.

is an insinuation that more was expected.

(4.) By the use of 'alone', instead of 'only', other meanings are expressed. 'He alone lived for their sakes': that is, he, and nobody else, did so. 'He lived for their sakes alone', or 'for the sake of them alone'; that is, not for the sake of any other persons. 'It was alone by the help of the Confederates that any such design could be carried out. Better 'only'.

It has already been seen (page 106) that 'only' preceding a sentence or clause has the force of an adversative conjunction: 'I should be ashamed to offer at saying any of those civil things in return to your obliging compliments in regard to my translation of Homer, only (but, yet, still) I have too great a value for you not to be pleased with them' (Pope).

Further examples of the construction of 'only'.—'When men grow virtuous in their old rge, they only make a sacrifice to God of the Devil's leavings' (Pope). Here 'only' is rightly placed. 'Think only of the past as its remembrance gives you pleasure', should be 'think of the past, only as its remembrance', &c. 'As he did not leave his name, it was only known that a gentleman had called on business': 'it was known' only'. 'I can only refute the accusation by laying before you the whole'; this would mean 'the only thing I am able to do is to refute; I may not retaliate, or let it drop, I must refute it'. 'The negroes are to appear at church only in boots'; that is, when the negroes go to church they are to have no clothing but boots. 'The negroes are to appear only at church in boots', might mean that they are not to appear anywhere but at church, whether in boots or out of them. The proper arrangement would be to connect the adverbial adjunct 'in boots' with its verb 'appear', and to make 'only' qualify 'at church 'and no more; 'the negroes are to appear in boots only at church'. 'Others killed partridges—he only killed time'; this might imply that he did nothing else but kill time. This is a proper case for the diminutive position of the word. 'Others killed partridges, he killed time only', i.e. (sarcastically) nothing of more or usequence than time.

#### 9. Not-but only.

Errors frequently arise in the use of 'not—but only', to understand which we must attend to the force of the whole expression. 'He did not pretend to extirpate French music, but only to cultivate and civilize it.' Here the 'not' is obviously misplaced. 'He pretended, or professed, not to extirpate.'

#### IO. Not only—but also.

There is still greater complication with these. We may illustrate the construction as follows:—Suppose it is said, (1) 'He gave them food and clothing'. This means simply that he gave those two things. (2) 'He gave them both food and clothing'; that is, it would have been liberal to give either, but he gave both. (3) 'He gave not only food, but also clothing': food he might have been expected to give, but besides that, he gave, what was hardly to be expected, clothing. The 'but' has its usual power of causing a surprise: the 'not only 'gives the ordinary course of things; the 'but' marks an addition, or something not included in our natural expectations. In the following sentence 'not only-but' does not give the author's meaning: - 'We are monished here of charity, and taught that God is not only a private Father, but a common Father to the v hole world'. Here the meaning is that God is not a private Father; the expression supposes that he is a private Father. The 'only 'should be omitted. In the passage, from Addison-' By greatness I do not only mean the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of a whole view considered as one entire piece '—the same error is committed, and there is also a misplacement of the 'not'. 'By greatness I mean not the bulk of any single object, but the largeness of a whole view'. Shorter: 'By greatness I mean largeness, not in any single object, but in a whole view'.

Another point is raised by the following:—'not only Lydia, but all were concerned'; i.e., it was understood that Lydia was concerned, but not that all (including Lydia) were concerned. It would be necessary to say 'not only Lydia, but all the rest of the family were concerned': or, 'not Lydia alone, but all were concerned'. 'Not only England, but also France and Austria. protested' is correct; 'not only England, but all Europe was alarmed' would involve the same error as above: 'not England, alone, but all Europe', or 'not only England, but also the rest of Europe'.\*

'It is not only hard to distinguish between too little and too;

'I say not unto thee, until seven times, but until seventy times seven'. Here the 'not' is manifestly out of its place. 'I say unto thee, not until

seven times only, but until seventy times seven'.

The translation of Paul's appeal to Agrippa is not in strict accordance. with the English idiom. 'I would to God that not only thou, but also all that hear me this day, were both almost and altogether such as I am, except these bonds'. He here wishes both Agrippa and all that heard him to be as himself. But Agrippa was one that heard him, and should be excluded. Then again, they could not be both 'almost' and 'altogether'. The following rendering would avoid these objections; 'I would to God that not thou alone, but all that hear me this day, were not almost merely, but altogether such as I am, except these bonds'.

much reform, but between the good and evil intentions of different reformers.' We here expect 'not only hard, but impossible'. 'It is hard to distinguish not only between too little and too much reform, but between the good and (the) evil intentions of different reformers.'

11. The wrong placing of 'not' often gives rise to an imperfect form of negation.

'John and James were not there', means that John and James were not there in company. It does not exclude the presence of one of them. The negative should precede in this case: 'neither John nor James was there'. 'Our company was not present' (as a company, but some of us might have been); 'no member of our company was present'.

#### 12. At least.

This must be interpreted to mean 'the Romans understood liberty as well as we understand liberty'. The intended meaning is 'that whatever things the Romans failed to understand they understood liberty'. To express this meaning we might put it thus:—'the Romans understood at least liberty, as well as we do'; 'liberty, at least, the Romans understood as well as we do'. 'A tear, at least, is due to the unhappy'; 'at least a tear is a due to the unhappy'; 'a tear is due at least to the unhappy'; 'a tear is due to the unhappy at least'; all express different meanings.—'This cannot, often at least, be done'; 'this cannot be done often, at least'. (1. 'It often happens that this cannot be done.' 2. 'It does not often happen that this can be done.') So, 'man is always capable of laughing'; 'man is capable of laughing always'.

13. Misplaced circumstances, or adverbial adjuncts, generally.

To bring every clause into juxtaposition with the part that it is meant to qualify is as requisite as to place single words properly. Examples have been given incidentally. The following are a few more instances of misplaced clauses and adjuncts:—

'All these circumstances brought close to us a state of things which we never thought to have witnessed (to witness) in peaceful England. In the sister island, indeed, we had read of such horrors, but now they were brought home to our very household hearths' (Swift). 'We had read, indeed, of such horrors occurring in the sister island', &c.

'The savage people in many places of America, except the government of small families, have no government at all, and live at this day in that savage manner as I said before '(Hobbes). Perhaps the second and third clauses had better to be trans-

posed.

'Some dozen years afterwards, I had an editorial successor (in the Eximiner), Mr. Fonblanque, who had all the wit for which I toiled, without making any pretensions to it' (Leigh Hunt). Here the concluding clause, if we were to judge by its position, would qualify I; but it is meant to qualify 'who' (Mr. Fonblanque). More explicit thus: 'without his making any pretensions to it'.

'I shall have a comedy for you, in a season or two at farthest, that I believe will be worth your acceptance' (Goldsmith). Place the second clause first, in order to connect

the relative with its antecedent - 'comedy'.

#### Placing of Prepositions.

### 14. Prepositions should be placed as near as possible to the words they govern.

The following sentence is faulty in this respect:—'appears

Lausanne—with at its foot the little village of Ouchy'.

But it is to be remarked that there is a certain inversion allowable in English, whereby a preposition is far removed from its regimen. The principal case is when it governs a relative or interrogative word. 'The gipsies are a people whom we know next to nothing about.' 'What we are going to, is abundantly obscure; but what all men are going from, is very plain' (John Sterling). 'What are you looking for?'

There are also not unfrequent cases of *emphasis*, where the word governed by the preposition is required to go prominently forward: 'Now Sir Francis, though he was for a long time our

hero, we never exchanged a word with.

Further examples:—'Me, whom their foundation binds them to pray for, they suffer to die like a houseless dog' (Scott). 'The oddity of character which great men are sometimes remarkable for, Mapertuis was not entirely free from' (Goldsmith). 'That which ordinary men are fit for, I am qualified in' (Shak.).

#### Placing of Conjunctions.

15. The members of double-membered conjunctions should be placed in right correspondence.

The single-word conjunctions cause very little trouble.

Perhaps the chief blemish to style arising from mismanagement of these is seen when 'however' or 'therefore' is postponed too far.

'Not—but', and 'not only—but (also)' have already received attention (§§ 9, 10). It remains to exemplify 'neither—nor'. 'He would neither give wine, nor oil, nor money' (Thackeray): the conjunctions should be placed each before one of the excluded objects; 'neither give' implies 'neither (some other verb)', a meaning not intended. Re-arrange thus, taking all the common parts of the contracted sentences together: 'He would give neither wine, nor oil, nor money'. So: 'she can neither help her beauty, nor her courage, nor her cruelty' (Thackeray). 'He had neither time to intercept nor to stop her' (Scott). 'Some neither can for wits nor critics pass', (Pope.)

### 16. Ellipsis: the leaving out of some part of the full expression.

In addition to the three great processes, named Concord, Government, and Order of words, grammarians consider that certain cases of the syntax of sentences are explained by Ellipsis, which would therefore be ranked as a fourth binding process of composition. Many examples of ellipsis have already occurred. The following are further examples: 'I sent to the bookseller's (shop)'; 'whose (is) this image and superscription?' 'that (point) is the point'; 'the greatest man (of the men) on (the) earth'; 'they love each (one loves the) other'; 'come (you)'; 'how shall I curse (him) whom God hath not cursed?' who's that (that) knocks?'

An honest man, close buttoned to the chin, Broad cloth without, and u warm heart within.

Here there is an ellipsis of the participle. 'Can you sing?' 'I will try to (sing)'; '(I) thank you'; 'nothing (is) so good, but it may be abused'; 'they applied to the Duke of all men'. 'The virtuous () alone are happy ().' '() Better () be with the dead ().' '() Please, don't ().' 'When did you () reach () home?' '() An hour later than we expected ().' 'His future () is as dark () as ever ().' 'Though () defeated, he still pushes () onwards.' 'You and I, if not he (), will certainly () go soon.'

17. Pleonasm: the expression or indication of some part of the meaning more than once; excess of words.

This is the opposite of Ellipsis. It is a device sometimes resorted to for rhetorical force. The following are further

examples in addition to those that have already occurred: 'for the deck, it was their field of fame'; 'my banks, they are furnished with bees'; 'the night it was gloomy, the wind it was high'. 'We all of us complain of the shortness of time'. 'The friends of my youth, where are they?' 'The interests of his family, the security of his dynasty, these were his end and aim.' 'Truth, like a torch, the more it's shook, it shines.' 'He that witholdeth corn, the people shall curse him.' 'Make speed from hence.' 'Because I believed, therefore have I spoken.'

Double Negation.—Here may be mentioned the use of more than a single negative to express denial. This was usual in Old English. In the Elizabethan age, the double negative appears often to strengthen the denial. 'I never was nor never will be false'; 'I would not have believed no tongue but Hubert's'.

Now, however, it is the rule in English that two negatives make a positive; the one neutralizes the other; as 'I entertain a not unfavourable opinion of him'. Hence, when denial is intended, it is an inconsistency to use more than one negative. 'They cannot utter the one, nor will they not utter the other'; 'this is not always the case neither'. 'They will not be disappointed at the result no more than you are yourself.'

18. If we were to dwell on incidental and exceptional constructions, we might note the following as a case of Parenthesis, or the insertion of an unconnected expression in the middle of a sentence: 'our ideas are movements of the nerves of sense, as of the optic nerve, in recollecting visible ideas, suppose of a triangular piece of ivory'.

#### OF PURITY.

Besides observing the rules of grammar, we must employ only such words as really belong to the language, and we must use them in their correct sense. To attend to these conditions is to have regard to Purity.

The errors against purity are classed under three heads: Burburism, Solecism, and Impropriety.

#### Barbarism.

This consists in using words that are not English. Such are—1. Obsolete words.

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Bad Syntax is included in the definition, but there may be Solecisms that do not violate grammar; they are then said to be violations of *idiom*.

If we say 'I have hunger', we do not commit bad grammar; still the combination is not English: it is French. 'I feel a smell' is grammatical, but not according to idiom. 'I will speak my mind', 'get thee gone' (we cannot say 'make thee gone'), 'many a man', 'you had best', 'do honour to' (Shakespeare says 'do grace to Cæsar's corpse'), 'once and again', are English idioms, which have come into use from very different causes and must now be observed.

#### Impropriety.

This means employing words in a wrong sense.

1. Impropriety in single words.

Scott and Thackeray use the expression, 'There was a quantity

of people present', for 'there were a number'.

It often happens that two words have similar, but not identical meanings, so that the one cannot be used for the other on every occasion. Such terms are called synonymous, or synonymes. The following are examples:—'all, every, each'; 'allow, permit'; 'assist, help'; 'astonish, surprise', 'belief, faith'; 'pleasure, delight, joy; 'repentance, remorse'; 'principle, truth'; 'observe, remark'; 'on the contrary, on the other hand'.

Another class of improprieties originate in not adverting to the composition of a word, or to the precise force of the prefix or the suffix combined with the root. Thus: 'Ramus published a Greek grammar, with many important variances from his precursors', for 'variations'; 'the observation of the Sabbath'; 'the observance'; 'the Greek is a language superior in riches' ('richness'); 'he felt himself compelled to acknowledge the justice (justness) of my remark'; 'the negligence (neglect) of this leaves us exposed'.

Sometimes we are misled by similarity of sound, as in using the word 'demean' (signifying 'to behave', 'to conduct one's self', as in 'demeanour') in the sense of 'lowering', 'debasing', 'making mean'. Thackeray, indeed, seems to use 'demean' as equivalent to 'degrade', 'debase', three times out of four; alternating with this the sense of 'behave'. (See Philip). 'They form a procession to proceed (precede) the palanquin of ambassador'; 'he rose (raised) the price of bread last week'; 'it lays (lies) on the table'; 'they wrecked (wreaked) their vengeance'.

## 2. Impropriety in phrases.

This refers to expressions that contain, when analyzed, some inconsistency or absurdity. A common instance of the classisseen in the following example:—'it celebrates the Church of England as the most perfect of all others', meaning 'the most perfect of all'. So: 'Northumberland was the most extensive of any Anglo-Saxon state' (Hallam): for either 'the most extensive of all the Anglo-Saxon states', or 'more extensive than any other Anglo-Saxon state'. 'He has made the higher to number of marks ever made in any former year.' 'Shakespeare was the man who of all modern, and perhaps ancient poets, had the largest and most comprehensive soul' (Dryden): there is at least some ambiguity here.

'The comeliest man of men since born His sons. The fairest of her daughters Eve'.

This makes Adam one of his sons, and Eve one of her daughters! 'I had like to have gotten one or two broken heads for my impertinence'; 'I was once or twice likely to get my head broken for my impertinence'.

Like kings we lose the conquests gained before, By vain ambition still to make them more'.

'Conquests gained before', cannot le made 'more'.

Pleonastic expressions are sometimes to be ranked as improprieties. For example, the case of double negatives (page 328). So: 'These two men are both equal in strength', is an inconsistent expression, if it be meant that one is equal to the other.

Many improprieties are provincialisms, or district peculiarities. Thus, we have Scotticisms, Irishisms, Americanisms, Cockneyisms.

The Scotticism consists, not in the employment of purely Scotch words, but in the employment of English words in a Scotch meaning or construction. A list of Scotticisms is here appended, in addition to those already noticed.

#### SCOTTICISMS.

### 1. Un-English use of Words,

I have nothing ado, or nothing else ado.—To do.

He has been ailing for some weeks.

—Unwell.

I would rather go as stay.—Than.

He is away. -He is absent, not present.

How are you to-day? Very bad.—

He was amissing. - Missing.

Ill. Badly.—Ill.

His watch is before.—Fast.
Your watch is behind.—Slow. I
fear I shall be behind. Late.
When I shall be beside you.—With.
By-gone, by-past.—Past. Shakespeare has gone-by.
A sugar-bowl.—Basin.
He walked at the burial.—Funeral.
They pears and the burial.—Funeral.

He walked at the burial.—Funeral. They never cast-out.—Disagree, or quarrel.

Cattle in Scotch includes cows, oxen, &c., but not so particularly horses as in England.

I was his caution.—Security.

Close the door.—Shut.

For common. - Commonly.

Compliment.—A present.

Corn the horses.—Feed.

A couple of hens. — Two hens.

A coarse day; coarse weather.— But we may say, a fine day, and fine weather.

Are your children at the counting?

-Studying arithmetic.

A cloth-brush.—A clothes-brush.

To crave a man for a debt,—To dun him or demand payment of him. To crave a debt, or to crave payment, might be proper.

Were you crying on me?—Calling. To disabuse is sometimes used for

' to abuse '.

He is dull.—Deaf. The day is dull.-Overcast.

An oaken deal. —Plank. Deals, or deal-boards are made of fir or

He is much distressed with an inward trouble. With an inter-

nal disease.

Give me a drink.—Give me drink, some drink, or something to drink.

A faint.—A fainting-fit; a swoon.

I feel afraid.—I am afraid.

I feel a sweet smell.—I smell a sweet smell, I smell something To feel a smell is as agreeable. repugnant to the English idiom as to see a sound.

He fevered; he took a fever.—He had fever; or he was taken, or seized, with fever.

I find no pain.—Feel.

Flesher. - Butcher. • A flower (bunch of flowers).—A

nosegay.

Fog is a Scotch name for moss.

For ordinary.—Ordinarily, usually, commonly.

four-square table.—A square table.

Fresh weather.—Soft, open, not

frosty. Friend.—Used for a relation (in blood).

*Frighted.*—Afraid, frightened. The frost is slippery.—The ice. Gear.—Wealth or riches.

I was unable to get.—Get away.

My glasses.—Spectacles.

Goblet.—Saucepan.
'Greedy' and 'greediness' English, but greed is Scotch.

The boy was ill-guided.—Ill-used, ill-treated.

He fell in the gutter.—In the dirt. What's o'clock? Half six.- Half an hour past five, or half past, five. Five minutes from twelve.

—Five minutes to twelve, or before twelve; or, it wants five minutes of twelve. (By five minutes from twelve an Englishman would un terstand five minutes past twelve.)

Hard fish. --Dried fish, or salt fish. I was in London last harvest.—

Autumn.

Hend of a street.--Upper end.

Sor: head.—Headache.

A hirer in Scotland is one who lends a horse for hire. In England it is one who borrows a thing, and pays money for the use of it; or who employs another and pays him wages.

Inkholder.—Inkhorn.

To ken.—To know. In modern poetical English to ken is to descry, to see at a distance.

Kindle a fire —(Not improper, but the more usual English word is 'Light'.)

To labour the ground.—To till the ground.

Fodder is large.—Plentiful.

plenty. Every lawful day.—Every week-

day.

In old English and in Scotch, to learn means both to give and to receive instruction; but in English it is now confined to the latter meaning.

He is still in life.—Alive.

I lifted a pin from the carpet.—

Picked up.

Lime for mortar is Scotch. Mortar is the cement when prepared; and lime, sand, and water are the materials.

He was lost in the river.—Drown-If the body be carried away, or not found, the person may be said to be lost.

In old Euglish and in Scotch, meat means food in general. In modern English it denotes fleshmeat

I do not mind that I ever saw you before.—Remember. To mind is in English to attend to, as 'mind your business'.

The project misgave.—Failed, or miscarried. 'My mind misgave

me', is correct.

The boy misguides his clothes.—
Abuses or sullies. To misguide is to mislead.

On the morn, - Morrow.

Napkin.—Pocket-handkerchief.

The omission of a point sometimes makes great odds in the sense.—
A great difference.

If I had it in my offer, I would not accept of it.—In my choice.

The offer is here supposed to be not mine, but made by another.

This bread is old.—Stale. Cut out your hair.— Off.

Take out your glass.—Take your glass.

In an overly manner.—Cursory, or

superficial.

A pair of ducks; a pair of partridges.—Two ducks; a brace of partridges.

The park is well ploughed.—Field.

Plainstones. - Pavement.

He was pointed in his answers.— Exact and concise Pointed, in the figurative sense, applied to language, conveys the idea of wit or conceit.

A gentleman's policies.—Pleasure-

grounds.

Pouch is used in Scotland, and was used in England, for pocket.

But a pocket is inserted in the clothes, a pouch is not.

He lives presently in London.—At

present.

To pull up by the roots.—To pluck up by the roots. To pull a flower.—To pluck a flower. One might pull a flower without pucking it. Separation scems to be implied in the latter word.

Queer, in English, is odd, strange, particular. In Scotland it is used in the sense of comical.

humorous.

He will not readily do that.—He is not likely to do that. One would readily imagine.—Naturally. Readily, in English, denotes with little delay or hindrance.

Considerable arrears being now resting to the soldiers.—Remaining.

The babe roars.—Cries.

Roasted cheese.—Toasted cheese.

Roof of a room. - Ceiling.

He roves in a fever.—Raves. To rove is to roam or wander.

I am scarce of fodder.—Short of fodder, have not a sufficiency.

A Scots idiom.—A Scotch idiom.

He scoured the knives. - Cleaned.

That dress sets her well.—Becomes. For my share I can only say, &c.—
For my part.

Shearers.—Reapers. A shearer, in England, is one that cuts with shears. 'A sheep before her shearers is dumb.'

The ship is at the shore.—Quay, wharf. The shore is the coast of the sea.

Have you any silver?- Change.

I will answer the letter so soon as I receive it.—As. It is correct to say, 'I did not receive the letter so soon as I expected it'.

A soit day .-- Wet.

The candlestick is sitting in the press.—Stands in the cupboard.

Some better.—A little, something.
You will some day know it.—
One.

Do you *snuff?—*Take snuff.

The servant was sorting the room at the time.—Putting in order.

Is your watch out of sorts?— Out of order.

Speak to me.—Listen to me.

In Scotland spice is used for pepper, and corn for oats. But pepper, cloves, cinnamon, mace, are different sorts of spice; and oats, barley, rye, wheat, are different kinds of corn.

A winding stair goes from top to bottom.—Winding stairs.

The horse stammers.—Stumbles.

He stopped three months with them. –Remained, resided, stayed.

In Scotland the word storm is used to signify a storm of snow, or snowy weather. Even the expression lying storm is made use of.

A man's subjects.—Effects.

Send me a swatch of the cloth.— Sample.

Sweet butter.—Fresh butter.

Sweet milk.—New milk.

Tell the man to come here.—Bid the man come here or hither. Or tell the man that I wish to speak to him.

The two boys strove.—Quarrelled.

Pope was a tender man.—Weakly. This donation was the more acccptable, that it was given without solicitation.—Because.

He is twenty years old, or thereby. Thereabout, or thereabouts.

The church was very throng.— Full, crowded.

A timber candlestick.—Wooden.

Tradesman, in Scotland, is one that works with his hands at a trade. In England it is a shopkceper, who either does or does not work with his hands.

Sore trouble.—Painful disease.

James is turned a great student.— Has become.

Wainscot, for 'oak', is a Scotticism.—Wainscot, in the English sense, is the inner lining of a

wall with any sort of wood. Lend me your knife. I ca I cannot want it.—Do without it.

The water of Don.—The River Don. I weary when I sit alone. —Become weary. Weary, in England, is a transitive verb; as 'walking wearies me '.

The weaving or working of stockings

is a great manufacture in Aberdeenshire. - Knitting,

I rose whenever I heard you call.— When, as soon as. Whenever is at what ever time.

Whitsunday. - Whitsuntide.

Some say that our whole actions selfish.-All our actions. His whole friends forsook him. -All his friends.

An old wife.—An old woman. wife is a woman who has a husband.

What's your will?—What do you want?

never witnessed anything so ridiculous.—Beheld, orLast night I witnessed a very agreeable conversation. present at.

Mr. — is come; I hear his word. -Voice.—Have you any word to your brother.—Have you any

message?

Carpenters, joiners, cabinetmakers, &c., are, in Scotland, called wrights, and sometimes square-wrights. Wright is workman or artificer; but in England is used in composition only; as 'ship-wright', 'wheel-wright'.

A writer. - An attorney. In Eng land a writer is an author.

A *yard.*— A garden.

Yesternight.—Last night.

### 2. Un-English Phrases.

Butter and bread.—Bread butter. In all similar phrases bread has the precedency; as 'bread and milk', 'bread and cheese', &c.

I behaved to go.—It behaved me to go. I was obliged to go.

I would die before I would break my word.--Rather than break.

A bit bread, a bit paper.—A bit of

bread, a bit of paper.

To cause him to do it, is better than to cause him do it. But to make him do it is better than to make him to do it; which last phrase, however, though uncommon, is not without authority. Again, I made him do it is right; but he was made do it is wrong. must be, he was made to do it.

I would have you to know.—I would have you know.

To play cards.—To play at cards. To cast up a fault to one.—To upbraid one with a fault.

A letter conceived in the following words. — Containing.

To hinder to do.—To hinder from

What like is it?—What is it like? there is no matter.—No matter, or it is no matter.

The child cook the pox. seized with, or taken ill of, small-pox.

Give me a clean plate.--Change

my plate. A piece bread.— A piece of bread.
To think shame.—To be ashained.

He thinks long for summer.- He longs for summer. ('Think long' occurs in Roister Doister, the earliest English Comedy, 1553.) Everything succeeds to a wish.—

As one would wish, according to our wishes.

He was in use to walk every day.—
He used to walk, or was wont to
walk.

He has a good hand of write.—He writes well.

I am going to play myself.—To play.

Who do you sit under?—Whose
Church do you go to?

You may lay your account with opposition.—You may expect, or reckon upon, opposition.

The clock is standing.—Has stopped.

He wants out.—He wishes to go out.

I slipped a foot and fell down.--My foot slipped and I fell.

James and John are perpetually quarrelling with one another.—
Are perpetually quarrelling.

It is ten years ago since he died.—
It is ten years since he died.

I can sing none.—I cannot sing at all.

When does the church go in?—When does service begin?

Take it (to) yourself.

Are you for any pudding?—Will you take?

Getting his breakfast.—Taking breakfast. I take an egg to (for) breakfast.

I can't get into my box.—I can't open.

I will let you see it.—Show it you.

I am going to (my) bed—(my) dinner.

Almost never.—Seldom or never.

How far does he go with you?

No more than to Edinburgh.—

Farther.

### PUNCTUATION.

Punctuation divides paragraphs and sentences by points or stops, with a view to assist us in discovering readily the connexions of the words, and to indicate the pauses required in reading.

It has been seen that the reference of qualifying adjuncts is to be determined principally by their proximity to the words they qualify. Punctuation is an additional help.

The chief stops are these: the comma (,), the semicolon (;), and the full stop, or period (.). The colon (:) is something intermediate between the semicolon and full stop, but is not often required.

The other stops are—the interrogation (?), put at the end of a question; the parentheses (), and the brackets [], to indicate a remark thrown in without connexion with the rest of the sentence; the dash (—); and the exclamation (!).

### The Comma.

SIMPLE SENTENCES.

I. A very long Subject is separated from the Predicate by a comma.

The comma is used before the verb if the subject is rendered very long by means of adjuncts: 'The circumstance of his being unprepared to adopt immediate and decisive measures, was represented to the Government'.

But in ordinary cases a stop should not be placed between the subject and the verb: 'To be totally indifferent to praise or

censure is a real defect of character'.

# 2. Co-ordinating adjuncts of the subject are isolated by commas.

The comma is used before and after a participle or participial phrase when co-ordinating, and not restrictive: 'The jury, having retired for half an hour, brought in a verdict for the 'defendant'; 'encouraged by his first successes, he redoubled his efforts'. But when the participial phrase is restrictive, the comma is not used, it being improper to separate a limiting adjunct from the word limited by it: 'A king depending on the

'support of his subjects cannot rashly go to war'.

The same rule extends to adjectives and nouns in apposition, when they are qualified by other words, and are in their effect co-ordinating rather than restrictive: 'The stranger, unwilling to obtrude himself on our notice, left in the morning'; 'Rome, the city of the Emperors, became the city of the Popes'. Even without adjuncts, a word in apposition, especially when adding new information, is often enclosed in commas: 'Paul, the Apostle', &c. But it is advisable so to punctuate as to maintain the distinction between restrictive and co-ordinating adjuncts.

# 3. An Adverbial Phrase preceding the verb, or its subject, is usually followed by a comma.

'In truth, I could not tell'; 'to sum up, the matter is this'; 'everything being ready, they departed'; 'by looking a little deeper, the reason will be found'.

When complex adverbial phrases come between the subject and the verb, they are placed between commas.

4. The name of a person addressed is isolated by commas.

'John, come here'; 'tell me, boy, what is your name!'

5. A Phrase or quotation that is either the subject or the object of the verb, is usually followed or preceded by a comma

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A slight amount of contraction does not dispense with the rule: 'A man of polite imagination can converse with a picture,

and find an agreeable companion in a statue '.

But when the sentences are very closely related to each other, and connected by the conjunctions 'and', 'or', 'nor', the comma is omitted: 'I made haste and overtook him'; 'neither money nor men were wanting'. A clause introduced by an anestive conjunction, 'but', &c., must be separated by a comma from what precedes, owing to the break in the sense: 'He went to market, but did not find what he wanted'.

When the conjunction is omitted between two co-ordinate sentences, they must be separated by a comma if short, and by a semicolon if long and complicated. 'He came, he saw, he conquered.' When such sentences (sometimes called collateral) are contracted, the remaining portions are still divided by commas: 'Early to bed and early to rise, makes a man healthy, wealthy, and wise'; or 'healthy, wealthy, wise'. 'Peter, James, Thomas, and Mary formed the party.'

These rules are all pervaded by one general principle, namely, that when words are closely connected in grammar or in sense they must not be separated in the pointing; but if an interruption takes place, or a transition is made, a point is necessary. An expression enclosed between commas is in some sort parenthetical; there would be no break in the grammatical connexion, or in the sense, if it were passed over.

## The Semicolon and the Colon.

The Semicolon is introduced when a greater pause is required than what is usually indicated by the comma.

In the construction of sentences, or periods, we may have some clauses more closely connected than others, and the degree of connection may be suggested by the absence of a stop, by a comma, or by the semicolon: 'Children without any design imitate the language, the tone, the pronunciation, the looks, the gestures, the gait of those with whom they live; and if the imitation be continued sufficiently long, no efforts in after life can overcome the effects of it, the flexibility or docility, so to speak, of the tissues or organs concerned seeming to diminish rapidly with the approach to maturity, or the cessation of growth'. Here it is felt that the break or pause is much greater after 'they live', than at the end of the various words

<sup>\*</sup> The only exception to this is Rule 1 (simple sentence); but that is justified on the ground that the inordinate length of the subject renders a pause desirable.

where commas are used. There is also a considerable break in the sense after 'can overcome the effects of it', where also there would have been no impropriety in placing another semicolon.

When a pause is not sufficiently marked by the semicolon, the colon may be used at the writer's discretion. But no fixed rules can be laid down respecting the use of this stop. One application of it is to introduce a quotation, a narrative, an argument, or an enumeration of particulars: 'He spoke as follows':-

# The Period or Full Stop.

This stop is used at the close of a complete sentence.

The rules for the use of it are the rules for the composition of periods and paragraphs. The most usual error is to include in. one period the matter that should be divided into two, or perhaps more.

The full stop is used after abbreviations: 'MS.', 'LL.D.', 'Lond.', 'Mr.', 'Esq.', 'Bart.'.

The note of interrogation must not be used after indirect questions; as 'he asked me who called'.

The parentheses enclose some remark that does not enter

into the construction of the sentence:

'The bliss of man (could pride that blessing find)
Is not to act or think beyond mankind.'

The dash marks an unexpected or emphatic pause, or a sudden break or transition: 'Why, perhaps it is—but what was his intention?'

Sometimes it is used to mark words in apposition, or in explanation:

'They plucked the seated hills, with all their load—Rocks, waters, woods—and by the shaggy tops Uplifting, bore them in their hands.'

Two dashes may be used to enclose an explanatory parenthetic clause; 'In truth, the character of the great chief was depicted two thousand five hundred years before his birth, and depicted—such is the power of genius—in colours which will be fresh as many years after his death'.

Inverted commas are used to mark quotations.

The note of exclamation or admiration is used after interjections and passionate exclamations, or after any passages that are intended to be especially emphatic: 'A dread eternity! how surely mine!'

### PARSING.

The various parts of every sentence may be examined in five different modes.

In giving a complete account of a sentence, we might parse it five times, for as many different purposes. We might state first the part of speech of each word; secondly, the inflexion of every inflected word; thirdly, the derivation of each word; fourthly, the analysis of the sentence; and fifthly, the application of the syntactical rules of concord, government, and order to the sentence. But there being very little to do under the second head—inflexion, we may conveniently join that with the first. Also, the analysis and the other parts of syntax are so closely allied, that we may take the whole under one parsing. (The analysis might also be easily included in the first mode of parsing.) There will thus be three distinct parsings applicable to any one passage.

# I. Parsing for Parts of Speech (including Inflexion.)

Under this we state the Part of Speech of each word (whether Noun, Pronoun, &c.), showing how it comes under the Definition; also the class or subdivision that the word belongs to; and the inflexional changes it exhibits.

It is necessary even for this limited purpose to understand the syntax of the sentence, for we must often treat a phrase of two or more words as grammatically one. Moreover, we must determine the part of speech according to the actual function of the word in each case; seeing that the same word falls under different parts of speech at different times. We shall take as an example the following passage from Milton:-

> 'Far less abhorred than these Vex'd Scylla, bathing in the sea that parts Calabria from the hoarse Trinacrian shore.

Far'; an adv. of degree, modifying 'less'.

'Less'; adv. of degree, comparative, modifying 'abhorred'. Not in usual compar. form, the -r ending being assimilated to the final consonant of the positive ( $l\alpha s$ ).

'Abhorred': adj. of quality (derived from past participle of verb 'abhor'); limits 'hell-hounds', understood.

'Than': adv. of degree, comparative, modifying a verb inderstood 'were abhorred', the completion of the clause commencing with 'these'. (The whole clause-'than these

(hell-hounds) were abhorred '-is equivalent to an adv. of degree, modifying 'less'.)

'These': adj., pronominal, demonstrative; plural; limits 'hell-hounds', understood. Or, pronoun, demonstr.; plur.;

having for its antecedent (or pointing to) 'hell-hounds'.

'Vex'd': verb transitive; active voice, indicative mood, past indefinite tense, third person, plural number; subject, 'hellhounds', understood after 'abhorred'.

'Scylla': noun, proper, singular, meaningless; or simply

proper)\*; feminine; the object of the verb 'vexed'

'Bathing': verb, intransitive; (imperfect or incomplete)

participle; subject, 'Scylla'; co-ordinating use.

'In': preposition, place, rest in; placed before 'sea' to mark the relation between 'sea' and 'Scylla bathing' (or joined with 'sea' to make up an advl. phrase modifying

'bathing'.)
'The': adj., pronoml., demonstr., (usually called the definite article); limits 'sea'. (The complete limitation is given by the expression—'that parts . . . shore'—adj. clause re-

strictive.)

'Sea': noun, general and significant (or simply general, or common), \* connected with 'bathing' by 'in' (or taken with 'in' to make up a phr.—as above.)

'That': pron. relative, restrictive; antecedent 'sea';

subject to the verb 'parts'.

'Parts': verb, transitive, predicate to 'that'; act. voice, indic. mood, pres. indef. tense, sing. number, 3rd person.

'Calabria': noun, proper; object to 'parts'.
'From': preposition (one of the case prepositions), place, motion with direction; placed before 'shore' to mark the relation between 'shore' and 'parts' (or joined with 'shore' to to make up an advl. phr. of place, motion with direction, modifying 'parts').

'The' (as above); limits 'shore'.

- 'Hoarse': adj. of quality; qualifies 'shore'. Co-ordinating. 'Trinacrian': adj. derived from a proper name; limits 'shore'.
- \* It would be too much trouble to keep up the full distinctions on all occasions, and I should therefore propose that when a noun is a proper (or meaningless) name, and also the name of one object, it should simply be called 'proper'; as the names that are proper and not singular are the exception, and may be noted when they occur. The significant nouns are nearly all 'general', and might be parsed as 'general', (or if preferred 'common'), and therefore 'general' or 'common' might be held to mean 'general and significant', unless the contrary be stated. The parsing of nouns would thus continue as at present, except that when such a word as the 'Browns' or the 'Jameses' occurred, it would be stated as 'proper and common'; and when 'Providence' or 'the emperor' occurred, it would be stated as 'singular and significant'.

'Shore': noun, general (or common); taken with 'from'. (The combination 'the Trinacrian shore' constitutes a singular name, partly significant and partly proper.)

II. Parsing for Derivation. This consists of two parts; first, assigning the source of each word, as 'Native', 'French', &c.; and secondly, giving account of its composition when it is

a compound word.

The rules and lists given under Derivation—Sources of Words, together with the lists given in the Appendix, are intended to afford the means of determining the etymological origin of all our words. The rules to be absolutely relied on are those in sections 28, 29, 32, 33. It is to be seen first whether a word belongs to the parts of speech, &c., that are of home origin (28, 29). If this is not decisive, the rules relating to the number of syllables (32, 33) are to be referred to, together

with the lists of exceptions.

The pupil should gradually master all the smaller lists of the languages given in the text-Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Arabic, &c. He should also master the native words of more than one syllable, of which a tolerably complete enumeration is given in the account of the things named from native sources; in which account the examples are purposely drawn from dissyllable words. When a word of more than one syllable occurs, it should be stripped of any known prefix or ending, and reduced to its simplest form; as 'foot-step', 'mis-behave', 'under-go', 'out-strip', 'with-draw', 'faith-ful'. It is the uncompounded form that we are to deal with according to the rules (32, 33.) The question will then be decided by a reference to the lists in the Appendix. The first of these lists—the Celtic, might be readily mastered; the Scandinavian list is somewhat longer, but if the pupil were familiar with it likewise, the actual reference would be confined to two lists—the other Teutonic words and the list of classical monosyllables. A key is thereby furnished to the sources of the language, upon a plan preferable to the use of the dictionary, as it deals with classes and not with individuals, and renders it possible ultimately to master the entire language.

The rules drawn from the endings and prefixes (30, 31) are very useful for giving the probable origin of words at the first glance; but in consequence of the great number of hybrids, of which no complete list has been made, they are not the rules that are depended on. In distinguishing between a Latinized and an English style generally, they are a tolerably safe guide.

If pupils have been disciplined in Latin, Greek, and Saxon roots, or if they have made some progress in Latin and Greek, or in French, they will have an additional means of discrimina-

ting the sources of our vocabulary; and the teacher will then appeal to this part of their knowledge in parsing for derivation.

The other exercise under Derivation consists in reducing words that are not simple to their simple elements. Thus greatness' is made up of the adjective 'great' and the suffix 'ness'; 'embitter' is the adjective 'bitter' combined with the prefix 'em', which is employed to convert adjectives into verbs, with the meaning of 'to make'; 'powder-horn' is a compound word made up of two nouns.

III. Parsing for Syntax. The analysis of sentences has been sufficiently exemplified. There remains only the illustration of the rules of Concord, Government, and Order, as given under those several heads. Numerous examples of detailed parsing for Syntax are given in the Key to First English Grammar, pp. 157-186.

#### EXAMPLES OF ERRORS.

AND OF INFERIOR, AMBIGUOUS, OR PECULIAR FORMS.

(The arrangement is designedly made promiscuous.)

The separation did not take place till after the language had attained

the ripeness of maturity.

The Church has, through its Committee on Education, in their last report, recommended a more liberal endowment, so that we have now reason to count upon their cordial co-operation.

What is the reason that our language is less refined than those of Italy,

Spain, or France?

Prompted by the most extreme vanity, he persisted in the writing bad

By letters, dated the third of May, we learn that the West India fleet

arrived safely.

If I want skill or force to restrain the beast that I ride upon, though I bought it and call it my own; yet, in the truth of the matter, I am at that time rather his man than he my horse.

This great philosopher, with whom I am always unwilling to differ,

It is not so unwieldy as to make it necessary to have recourse to the complex mechanism of double elections.

A history now by a Mr. Hume, or a poem by a Mr. Pope, would be examined with different eyes than had they borne any other name.

One species of bread, of coarse quality, was only allowed to be baked.

The party whom he invited was very numerous.

The Duke of Manchester died at Rome on the 18th of March, 1843. His grace in 1793 married the daughter of the late Duke of Gordon, and was 71 years of age.

There is not a girl in town, but let her have her will, in going to a

mask, and she shall dress like a sherherdess.

It is now about four hundred years since the art of multiplying books has been discovered.

An officer on European and on Indian service are in very different

situations.

For I remember that among your ancient authors, not only all kings, but even Jupiter himself is so termed.

My old friend, after having seated himself, and trimmed the boat with his coachman, who, being a very sober man, always serves for ballast on these occasions, we made the best of our way to Fox-hall.

Man never is, but always to be blest.

Indeed, were we to judge of German reading habits from these volumes of ours, we should draw quite a different conclusion to Paul's.

I know no duty in religion more generally agreed on, nor more justly

required by God.

The doctor; in his lecture, said that fever always produced thirst.

Alarmed by so unusual an occurrence, it was resolved to postpone their departure.

The Annals of Florence are a most imposing work.

Without having attended to this, we will be at loss in understanding several passages in the classics.

They have no other standard on which to form themselves, except what

chances to be fashionable.

The Earl of Huntly, conformable to the crafty policy which distinguishes his character, amused the leaders of the congregation.

Luxuriance of ornament and the fondness for point are certain indications of the decline of good taste.

Such expressions sound harshly.

To engage a private tutor for a single pupil, is, perhaps of all others,

the least eligible mode of giving literary instruction.

In every ward one of the king's council took every man's book, and sealed them, and brought them to Guildhall to confront them with the original.

This diffused a secret joy through the whole assembly, which showed

itself in every look and feature.

They introduced the taste of science and religion which distinguished

Medina as the city of the book.

What can be the cause of the parliament neglecting so important a business?

Hobbes is probably the first of whom we can say he is a good English

writer.

The atrocious crime of being a young man, I shall neither attempt to palliate nor deny.

The Royal Family takes rank before the Peers of the realm.

Politics are too strong for the schools and give them their bias.

Either you or I are in the wrong.

You seem neither to care for yourself nor for any one else after what you have lost.

On either side of the river was there the tree of life.

If a stranger should hear these furious outcries of ingratitude against our general, he would be apt to inquire.

I have lost the game, though I thought I should have won it.

Let the elders that rule well be counted worthy of double honour. especially they who labour in the word and doctrine.

He would not be persuaded but what I was greatly in fault.

I do not think that leisure of life and tranquillity of mind, which fortune and your own wisdom has given you, could be better employed.

It is a long time since I have been devoted to your interest.

This haughty and imperious style sounded harshly to Scottish nobles, impatient of the slightest apppearance of injury.

The family with whom I have long lived in intimacy is gone to the

country.

That is seldom or ever the case.

The fact of me being a stranger to him does not justify his conduct.

It is one of the most satisfactory and valuable emendations which has ever been made.

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In the Latin language, there are no two words we would more readily take to be synonymous than amare and diigere.

I have frequently been assured by great ministers that politics were

nothing but common sense.

I had several men died in my ship of yellow fever.

He is an author of more credit than ——, or any other, that write lives so hastily.

He or you are in the wrong.

During the last century no prime minister, however powerful, has become rich in office.

The following treatise, together with those that accompany it, were

written many years ago, for my own private satisfaction.

The person who immediately walked before him, was remarkable for an embroidered garment, who not being well acquainted with the place, was conducting him to an apartment appointed for the reception of fabulous heroes.

He addressed several exhortations to them suitably to their circumstances.

When the Emperor Alexander elevated the standard of the cross, he invoked the only power that ever has, or ever will, arrest the march of temporal revolution.

I do not question but they have done what is usually called the king's

business.

Can parliament be so dead to its dignity and duty as to give their support to measures thus intruded and forced upon them?

The duke had not behaved with that loyalty, as he ought to have done.

He that can doubt whether he be anything or no, I speak not to.

A talent of this kind would, perhaps, prove the likeliest of any other to succeed.

The ends of a divine and human legislator are vastly different.

Bc not too tame neither.

The ancestors of the human race knew poverty in a partial degree.

He was scarce gone, when you arrived.

I would feel myself blighted in the eyes of all my acquaintances, I would be overpowered by the feelings of my own disgrace.

They entreated to read to me, and bade me not to cry, for I was now

too old to weep.

He need not proceed in such haste,

On your conduct at this moment depends the colour and complexion of their destiny.

One day, being brought before the king, and being asked whom he was, Diogenes replied, 'A spy on your cupidity'.

I, that did never weep, now melt in woe.

I must confess, after having surveyed the antiquities about Naples and Rome, I cannot but think that our admiration of them does not so much arise out of their greatness as uncommonness.

Reconciliation was offered on conditions as moderate as was consistent

with a permanent union.

I have never seen Major Cartwright, much less enjoy the honour of his acquaintance,

Sailing up the river, the whole town may be seen.

The masterly boldness and precision of his outline, which astonish those who have trodden parts of the same field, is apt to escape an uninformed reader.

It makes us to walk warily.

Neither the houses nor the garden were sold.

I should be obliged to him, if he will gratify me in that particular.

The next New Year's day, I shall be at school three years.

But there is a general correctness of delineation which must strike the eye at once of any person slightly experienced in geography.

Both of the scholars, or one of them at least, were present at the transaction.

That is either a man or a woman's voice.

Scarce had the Spirit of Laws made its appearance than it was attacked.

He comes; nor want nor cold his course delay.

He lived to see almost all the great principles which he had advocated not merely recognised, but a commencement made in carrying them into practice.

The rogue and fool by fits is fair and wise.

In these rigid opinions the whole sectaries, amidst all their other differences, unanimously concurred.

There are certain things that not only can not be done by force, but

the employment of force is the surest way to prevent them.

Every one thought to have his special views attended to.

I think the longest times of our worst princes scarce saw many more executions than the short one of our best reformer.

It was great in him promoting one to whom he had done some wrong. If you were here, you would find three or four in the parlour, after

dinner, whom you would say, passed their afternoons very agreeably.

Whatever would prove prejudicial to our future prosperity, however enticing it may seem at present, we must resolutely reject it.

Great numbers were killed on either side.

They here began to breathe a delicious kind of ether, and saw all the fields about them covered with a kind of purple light, that made them reflect with satisfaction on their past toils.

Hence he considered marriage with a modern political economist, as

very dangerous.

Olympus with its multitude of stately, celestial natures, dwindle before the solitary, immutable throne of Jehovah.

Mr. Broadhurst is a very good sort of man, who has not written a very

bad book on a very important subject.

That opinion is too universal to be easily corrected.

The temper, as well as knowledge, of a modern historian, require a more sober and accurate language

Wherever the giant came, all fell before him; but the dwarf had like to

have been killed more than once.

Man, though he has great variety of thoughts, yet they are all within his own breast.

Not only he found her busy, but pleased and happy even.

This is wonderful ridiculous from so solid an orator.

In reality more than one principle has been contended for at one time. The first thing impressed on us from our earliest infancy is that events do not succeed one another at random, but with a certain degree of order regularity. and connexion.

He thinks that He will soon return.

The ebb and flow of the tides were explained by Newton.

This does not so much seem to be owing to the want of physical powers, but rather to the absence of vehemence.

Animal spirits such as belong to some men are a fortune in themselves. The wealth of the great Audley may be considered as the cloudy medium through which a bright genius shone, and which, had it been thrown into a nobler sphere of action, the greatness would have been less ambiguous.

We cannot all be masters, nor all masters cannot be truly followed.

The accuracy and clearness of the sentence depend very much upon the proper and determinate use of the relative, so that it may readily present its antecedent to the mind, without any obscurity or ambiguity.

Hoping that I will soon hear from you, believe me yours truly.

You may infuse the sentiment by a ray of light, no thicker, nor one thousandth part so thick, as the finest needle.

Some persons can only distinguish black, white, and grey.

Domestic society is the seminary of social affections, where the first elements are acquired of that tenderness and humanity which cement mankind together; and which, were they entirely extinguished, the whole fabric of social institutions would be dissolved.

We would be greatly mistaken if we suppose wealth and rank exempt

from care and toil.

If I am not mistaken, a government can only be called democratic where a majority of adults are sovereign.

Some persons go the length of saying that nobody ought to be made to

do what he dislikes.

How far I shall be found to possess the most essential attribute of Poetry, I know not,

He always preferred having his own views sustained by the failure of his opponent's arguments than by the success of his own.

The articles may be in prose or verse.

There is no other method of teaching that of which any one is ignorant, but by means of something already known.

Persons have been known to take a fever after feeling the smell of an

open drain.

Suppose that, as a punishment, a man is condemned to put his finger

after two days into the flame of a candle.

Two substantives, when they come together, and do not signify the same thing, the former must be in the genitive case.

### APPENDIX.

### I.—CELTIC WORDS.

(W. Welsh, G. Gaelic, I. Irish.)

[The asterisk signifies that the word is not confined to the dialect specified.]

Alpine. G. Bachelor. W. Bag. G. Bald. G. Balderdash. W. Bard. W. Barrack. G. Basket: W. Bastard. W. Batten. G. Bauble. G. Bay-tree. W. Beast. G. Beg. G. Bog. G. Boggle. W. Boisterous. W. Bole. W. Bonfire. W. Booth. G. Bother. I. Bott. G. Bourn. G. Bragget. W. Brake, G. (a bit for horse**s.)** Bran. W.\* Brand. G. Buck. G. Bug. W. (a ghost.) Burn. (n.) G. Buss. G. (a kiss.) Button. G.\* Cabin. W. Calf (of the leg.) G. Cant. G. - 14

Card. G. Clan. G. Clog. G. Cloy. G. Club. W. Cockle. G. Coil. G. Coke. G. Combe. W. Coot. W. Crag. G. Crockery. W.\* Crone. G. (an old woman.) Crowder. W. Crown. W. Cuddle. **W.** Curd. W. Cut. W. Dad. W. Dainty. W. Dale.—Dell. W.\* Dandruff. W. Darnock.—Dannock. G. Decant. G. Flannel. W. Flummery. W. Frith. G. (muirland.) Geck. G. (to toss up the head.) Gown. W. Grid-iron. W. Gruel. W.

Gyves. W.~

Harlot. W. Havock. W. Hilding. W. Hog. W. Hover. W. Ingle. G. Jerk. W. Jolt. W. Kecks. - Kecksy. W. Kid. W. (a brush faggot). Kiln. W. Lick. W. (to beat.) Loop. G. Marigold. W.\* Mine. G. Minnow. G. Murle. W. Noggin. G. Pall. (v.) W. Pall. (n.) W. Pallet. G. Paw. W. Peel. W. (a small fortress.) Pellet. W. Perk.—Pert. W. Piggin. G. Pike. Bret. (flsh). Pikelet. W. Pin. W. Plait.—Pleat. W. Plaid. G. Plea. W.

Plight. W. Pour. W. Pumpkin. W. Put. W. Quip. W. Rasher. Cel. Sham. W. Size. W. (?) (glue). Slab. W. Soggy. W. Solder. W. Spree. Suet. W. Tabard. W. Tackle. W. Tall. W. Tanist. G. Tankard. G. Tarry. W. Tether. W. Tingle. W. Toll. W. Toss. W. Tuck. W. Wabble. W. Waist. W. Wanton. W. Welf.'W. Whiff. W  $\mathbf{W}$ him.  $\mathbf{W}$ . Whisky. I. Wimble. W. Whip. W. Wicket. W. Wire.

### II.—scandinavian words.

### (I. Icelandic, D. Danish, N. Norwegian, S. Swedish.)

Arch. I. sly. Awk.—Awk• ward. I. Backgammon. D. Ballast. D. Bark. I. Bark. I. (of a tree.) Bask. I. Beck. I. a brook. Beer. D. (a pillow.) Big. I. Bilberry. D. Bloat.—Bloated. --Bloater. S. Blond. I.\* Blunderbuss. S. Bound.—Bown. I. Box. D. (v.) Bulk. D. (as in bulkheads.) Bunch.—Bunk. -Bung. I. Bush.—Busk. I. Busk. I. (v.) Bustle. I. Cackle.—Gaggle. 8.\* Cade. I. (as a cade lamb.) Cake. 8. Call. I. Cast. I. (v.) Chamm.-Champ. L Champion. L Chuckle. I. Clear. L. Clump. I. Clumsy. I. Cod. I. (a husk.) Cock. D. (a boat.) Collow.—Colly. I. 800t. Cope. I. (v.) Cow. D. (v.) S. (a.) Crank. (nautical.) Crinkle. D. Cripple. L. Cross. I.\* Crouch. L Cub. L

Cucking-Stool. I. | Gizen. N. Culm. L Dairy.– Doy. S. Dale.—-Dell, I.\* Dangle. S.\* Dewlap. D. Dilling.—Dill. I. Dog. I. Doggrel. I. Dor. I. (v.)\* (to befool.) Dowdy. I. Draggle. S. Drake. S. Drazel.—Drossel. D. Dredge.—Drizzle Drivel. D. and I. Drub. I. Dug. S. Dunch. D. (to thump.) Dusky. S. Ferly. I. (wonder.) Fettle. I. Filly. N. Flit. D. Flizz. S. Flounce. S. (v.) Flounder. S. Flume. N. Fluster. L Fog. D. mist. Fond. I. Forse. I. (a waterfall.) Freak. I. a man. Freckle. I. Frith.—Firth. I. Froth. I. Gaby. D. (a simpleton. Gag-tooth. 1. Gain.—Gainly. I. Gale. I. (v.) Gale. N. (n.) Galley. I. Gammon. D. (an exclamation.) Gar. I. Gauntlet. S.

Gat-toothed. S.

Gill. S. (of a fish.)

Glare. N. Glamour. I. Glede. I. (a live coal.) Glidder. D. (slippery.) Glop.—Gloppen. Glout.—Gloat. S. Gnash. D. Grains. D. The Grains. D. (a karpoon.) Groin. D. (to be Grow.--D troubled.) Grovel. I. Gull. D. a dupe. Gust. I. Haberdasher. I. Haggle. I. Halse. I. to salute. Hamble.—Hammel. I. (to lame) Harrow. D. Haze. – Hazle. – N. Hit, I. Hoggins. I. Hoity-toity, S. Housel. I. Hugger-mugger. Hull. N. (v.) to coax. Inkling. L Jeer. I. Jolly-boat. D. Kedge. I. (1) an anchor; (2)brisk. Kedge-belly. I. Keelson.—Kelson. D. Keg. N. Kelter. S. (ready). Kenspeckle. N. Kickle.—Kittle. N. Kid. I. a young goat. Kid. I. as in kidnap. Kilt. S.

Kindle. I. to set fire to. Kitten.—Kitling -Kittle. N. Lam. I. (v.) to beat. Lawn. N. Leam. I. (gleam). Leg. I. Levin. N. (lightning.) Ling. 1. (a kind of heath.) Link. I. sausage; (2) a joint of a chain. Linstock. S. I.\* Loover. chimney.) Lout. I. (v.) Low. I. (dame.) Lurch.—Lurk. N Mane. I. Mare. I. (as nightmare.) Marram I. Marrow. I. Maul. I.  $(v_{\cdot})$ Mermaid. (I.) Midden. I. Mire. I. Mitten. N. Morkin. I. carrion. Mort. I. a great quantity. Moskered. I. decayed.Muck. N. (dung.) Mulled ale. I. Nagging.—Naggy. N. Narwhal. I. (the sea-unicorn.) Neive. I. Niggard. N. Nightingale. I. Nithing. I. (a vile jellow.) Oaf. I. a simpleton Odd. N. Pawn. I.\* Peal L

Pedigree. I. Peevish. D. Pet. S. a fit of displeasur**e.** Pippin. — Pip. D. Pod. D. Prog. N. (n. and v.) Pug-mill. D. Pulse. D. a sau-Rake. D. a vicious man. Ransack. S. Rate. S. to chide. Root. S. Rove. D. Scald.—Scalder D. Scant. I. Scare. I. Score, L

Screak. S. Scrip. S. Scull. I. (a small boat.) Scat. I. (a short tail.) Shirt. D. Shriek. S. Shrill. S. Silt. S. mud, slime. Skew. D. Skip. I. Skit. I. Skirt. D. Skull. I. Sky. S. Slag. D. Slake. L. Slant, S. Slash. I. Sleave. L

Slot. I. (the track | Stump. D. of a deer.) Slug. D. Smatter. D. Smicker. 8. Smile. S. Smug. D. (neat.) Snare. D. Sneap.—Snub. D. Snudge. D. Snug. D. Spirt. S. Spoon. I. Sprain. S. Sprawl. D. Spud. D. Squall S. Squeak. S. Squeal.S. Stack. D. Staff. I. a stanza. Stumble. I.

Swig. I. Switch. 8. Tag. Tang.—Tangle, Tarn. I. Thrive. D. Thrum. I. Thurs-day. D. Tramp. S. Trap. S. Trigger. D. Wail. I. Warlock. I. Weld. S. Whim. I. Whirl. I. Wicker. D. Window. D. Wing. S. Wisp. S.

### III.—OTHER TEUTONIC WORDS.

### (D. Dutch, G. German, F. Flemish.)

Average. G. Awning. G. Bad. G. Badge. G. Bamboozle. D. Bast.—Bass. D. Begone. - Woe-begone. D. Belong. D. Bent. G. rushes. Bill. D. Blear. G. Blight. G. Block. D. Bluff. D. Blund**er. D.** Boast. G. Boom. D. (n & v.) Boor. D. Botch. D. (n. & r.) Boult — Bolt. G. (v.) Bounce. D. Boy. G. Brabble. D. Brack.—Brackish G. Brandy. G. Brattice. - Bartisan. G. Buckwheat. G. Buff. G. dull of colours, &c.

Bull. G. animal. Bully.—Bullyrook. D. Bulwark. D. Bum. — Boom. Bump. D. Bum-bailiff. D. Bumpkin.G.\* Buoy. D. Buskin. D.\* Bush.—Bushel. Buss. D. a vessel. Butter.—Butterfly. G. Buttock. D. Carouse. G. Catkin. D. Caterpillar. D. Chaff. D. (v.) Chaffer. G. (v.) Chaldern.--Chawdron. G. Chap. — Chip. Chop. D. Charcoal. D. Chimb. D. rim of Crank. D. a vase. Chink-Cough. Chin-cough. D. Chitter. D. Chitterling. D. Chub. G.

Clamber. G. Clamp. — Clump. Clang.--Clank. G. Clash. G. Clatter. D. Click.—Clicket. Clench.—Clinch. D. Clink. D. Closhe. D. Cloud. D. Cobalt. G. Cockle. D. (v.) Cocker. D. Codger. G. Comber. D. Coomb. D. Copes - man, or -mate.— D. Cotquean.—Q uotquean. D., Cough. D. Cower. G. Cramp. D. Craunch. D. Craw. G. the neck, &c. Crawl. D.,

Creek. D. a brook.

Crewel G.

Cricket. D. an insect. Crone. D. an old sheep. Cruise. D. Cudgel. D. Cur. D. Curl. D. Cumber. D. Damp. G. (n. & v.) Dandle, G. Dank. G. Dapper. D. Dare. G. to be terrified. Daunt. Decoy. D. Deuce— Dickens. G. Dew-berry. G. Didapper. D. a water bird. Dock. G. (1) a bundle; sl v.ice. Dolley. D. Doit. D. Dole. G. a slip of pasture. Doll. G. Dollar. D. Dot. D. Dote. D.

Dotterel. D. Down. G. thistle-down. Drabble. D. Dragoon. D. Drake. — Drawk. Drape-sheep. D. Drawl. D. Dream. G. or D. Dredge. D. an anchor. Dretch. G. Drill. G. a kind of cloth. Drowsy. D. Duck. D. (v. & n.) Dumps. D. Ember-days. G. Etch. G. Fade. D. Felspar. G. Fetlock. D. Fey. G. Filberd. G. Fimble. G. Fine. G. Finical.—Finikin. D. Fir. G. Flaik. D. Flail. G. Fleech. G. Flew. G. (1) tender; (2) shallow. Flew-net. D. Flows. G. Flook. G. Flunkey. G. Flush., G. immediate. Flutter. G. Fob. G. (v.) Fog. G. (v.)Fou. G. Ford. G. Forge on. D. Fraught. G. Furlough. D. Gain. G. (in composition. Gallipot. D. Garden G. Gas. D. Gash. G. to cut. Geck. D. to sport, deride, &c. Gherkin. G. Gibbet. D. Girl. G.

Glance. D. as Glaver. D. (v.) Glib. D. Glimmer. G. Goit. — Gote. Gowt. D. a sluice, &c. Gooseberry. G. Graves.--Gravingdock. G. Groat. G. Groom. D. Grout. D. Grub. D. (v.) Guess. D. Guile. D. Haberdine. D. Hackbut, D. Hale. – Haul. G. Halibut. D. Halloo. G. Halm.—Hawm. Halse. D. to embrace. Halse.—Hawse. G. the neck. Hamper. D. Hank. G. Hantle. G. Hap. — Happy. Happen. D. Harsh. G. Hatch. G. (said of Leaguer. D. a lybirds). Hatch. D. to fas-Hackle. — Heckle. Haunch. G. Heyday. G. Higler. – Higgle. Hind-berry. G. Hob. D. Hobbedehoy. D. Hocus - pocus. Hoax. D. Hoddipeak. D. Hodge-podge. D. Hoe. D. Hog.—Hoggel.— Hoggrel. D. Hogshead. D. Hoyden. D. Hoop. D. Hop. G. Howlet. D. Hoy. D.

Huckle-bone. Huckster. G. Hurst. D. Husk. D. Hustle. D. Hut. D. Ingot. G. Interloper. D. Isinglass. G. Jerkin. D. Jib. D. (v.) Kaw.—Keck. G. Kebbers. D. Keel.—Kayle. G. Kemlin.—Kemnel. D. Kerb. G. Kilderkin. D. Kink. D. a twist. Kit. D. (1) a pail; (2) a brood. Knap. G. or D. Knapsack. G. or D. Lack. D. want. Lane. D. Landgrave. G. Larboard. D. Larrup. D. Lash. D. to bind. Lass. G. Lath. G. or D.\* Lary. D. ing, &c. Leaguer. G. small cask. Leak. D. Leat. (of a mill.) Ledger. D. Leet. D. a peasant tenant. Left. D. Less. G. termination. Lessel. G. a portico. Lights. G. Lime. G. a limetree. Linen. G. Line. G. (v.)Ling. D. a codfish. Link. D. a torch. Litmus. D. Loafer. G. Lobby. G. Huckle-backed. D. Log. D.

Loiter. D. Lombard-house. D. Loof. D. Lop. G. Loon.—Lown. D. Loop-hole. D. Loover. D. Lour. G. Lout. D. Lukewarm. G. Lusk. G. a slug, Mangle. G. (n. & v.) Marl. D. Mask. D. Maulstick. G. Mauther. D. Mazer. G. Mazzard. G. Measles. D. Mellow. G. Menild.— Meanelled. G. speckled. Mew. G. Miff. G. ill-humour. Mizzle. D. to rain fine. Mob-cap. D. Mole. - Mouldwarp. G. Moor. D. (v.)More. G. root of a tree, &c. Moult. D. Mud. G. Muff. D. a fool. Mug. G. an earthen pot. Mulberry. G. Mullock. D. rubbish. Mum. G. beer. Mumps. G. Musty. G. Nick. G. Old Nick. Nick. G. as in. nick-name. Nickel. G. Nozzle. G. Nudge. G. Oast. D. a kiln. Offal, G. Ogle. **G. D.?** Pack. G. Palm. G. tree. Pay. D. to daub. with pitch.

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### IV.—MONOSYLLABLES OF CLASSICAL ORIGIN.

### (F. French, G. Greek, I. Italian, L. Latin, S. Spanish).

Ace. F. Act. L. Add. L. Age. L. Aim. F. Air. L. Aisle. F. Alb. L. Apse. L. G. Apt. L. Arc. L. Arch. L. Arch (chief). G. Art. L. Asp. L. Aunt. L. Bail. F. Bale (bundle). F. Bale (v.). F. Ball (round body; dance). F. Balm. F. Bar. F. Barb. F. Barge, F. Barque. F. Base. F. Band. F. Bass. I. Bay. F. Beak. F. Beau. F. Beef. F. Belle. F. Bill (paper). F. Bice, Bise. F. Bile, L. Blame. F. Blanch. F. Bland. L. Blank. F. Block. F. Blonde. F. Blouse. F. Boil (v.)\_ L. Bomb. F. Boon (adj.). L. Boot (for feet). F. Cash. F. Boss. F.  ${f Bound.}$ F. spring). Bowl. F. Box. F. (a shrub). Cave. F. Brace. F. Cease. L.

Brach. F. Bract. L. Branch. F. Brave. F. Beam. F. Breeze, F. Breve. I. Bribe. F. Brick. F. Brief. F. Brisk. F. Broach. F. Broil. F. Bronze. F. I. Brooch. F. Browse. F. Bruit. F. Brush. F. I. Brusque. F. Brute. F. Budge. F. Bulb. L. Bull. L. edict). Bun. F. Bur. F. Burr. F. Bust. F. Butt. F. I. Buzz. I. Cade. L. a cask. Cage. F. Calk. L. Call. L. Calm. F. Camp. L. Can. (n.) L. Cane. L. ant (talk affectedly). L. Cant (tilt). F. Cape. L. I. Car. L. Card. F. Carp. F. carte. F. Case. F. Cask. F. S (to Catch. F. I. Caul, cowl. I. L. Cause. F.

Cede. L. Cell. L. Cent. F. Ccre. L. Cess(pool). L. Chafe. F. Chain. L. Chair. F. Chaise. F. Chance, F. Change. F. Chant. F. Chape. S. Char (burn). F. Charge. F. Charm. F. Chart. L. Chase. F. Chasm. G. Chaste. L. Cheat. F. Check. F. (Pope's Cheer. F. Chief. F. Chine. F. Choir. F. Chord. G. Chrism. G. Christ. G. Chrome. G. Chum. F. (?). Chyle. G. Chyme. G. Cist. L. Cives. F. Clack. F. Claim. L. Clang. G. Class. F. L. Clause. F. L. Clef. F. Clime. L. G. Clique, F. Cloak. F. Close. F. L. Clove. S. F. L. Clown. L. Coach. F. Coarse. L. Coast. L. Coat. F. Cod(fish). L. Code. L. Coif. F.

Coil. F. L. Coin. F. Cone. F. L. G. Cook. L. Coop. L. Copse. F. G. Cord. G. Core. L. Cork. S. Corps. F. Corpse. F. L. Cost. F. L. Couch. F. Count. F. Course. L. Coy. F. L. Crab (windlass). Crack. F. Crape. F. Crass. L. (ratch. L. Crate. I. L. Craze. F. Cream. F. Creed. L. Crest. L. Crime. L. Crisp. L. Croak. L. Cross. I. F. L. Crown, F. L. Crude. L. Cruise. L. Crase. F. Crush. F. Crust. L. Crutch. L. Cry. F. L. Crypt. I. G. Cue. F. Cube. F. L. G. Cuff. I. L. G. Cull. F. L. Culm. L. Cup. F. L. Curb. F. Cure. L. Curt. L. Cusp. L. Cyst. G. Dab. F. Dace (fish) F. Dam. F. Dame. F.

Damn. F. L. Dance. F. Dart. F. Date. F. L. Daunt. F. L. Dean. F. L. Debt. L. Deign. F. L. Dense. L. Derm. G. Deuce. F. Die. (noun) F. L. Dine. F. Lire. L. Dirgc. L. Disc, dish. L. G. Doge. I. L. Doit. F. L. Dole. L. Dome. L. G. . Don. S. L. Dose, F. G. Doubt. F. L. Douche. F. L. Drab (cloth) F. Drachm. G. Dram. I. G. Drape. F. Dredge. F. Dress. F. L. Droll. F. Drug. F. Drupe. L. G. Duct. L. Due. F. Duke. F. L. Dupe. F. Durc. L. Ease. F. Err. L. Egre. F. L. Face. F. L. Fact. L. Fail. F. L. Faint. F. Fair (market) F. L. Faith. F. L. False. L. Fame. L. Fane. L. Farce. F. Fate. L. Fault. F. Faun. L. Fawn (deer) F. Fay. F. Feast. F. L. Feat. F. L. Feign. F. L.

Fence. F. Fend. L. Fend (tief) L. Fib. I. L, Fief. F. Fierce. F. Fife. F. Fig. L. File. L. Fine. F. showy. Finc. L. a penalty. Firm. L. Fisc. L. Fit (attack pain) I. Fit. F. Fitch. L. Fix. L. Flail. F. L. Flame. L. Flank. F. Flask. F. Fleam. F. G. Flotch. F. Flock. L. a lock Gauge. F. of wool. Flog. L. Floss. I. L. Flounce. F. L. Flour. F. Flue. F. L. Flute. F. I. L. Flux. L. Foil. F. Foil. F. leaf. Foist. F. Font. L. Fool. F. Fop. I. L. Force. L. Forge. F. Form. F. Fort. F. Fosse. L. Found. L. buitding. Found. L. to cast. Fount. L. Fract. L. Frail. F. Frank. F. Fraud. L. Fray. F. Freak. I. Fret. F. interlacing bars, &c. Fret. F. wire on musical instr. Frieze. F. Frill. F.

Fringe. F. Frizz. F. Frock. F. rond. L. Front. L. Frounce. F. Frown. F. Fruit. L. Fry. F. (cooking.) Fry. F. spawn. Fugue. F. Fume. L. Fund. L of Fur. F. Furl. F. Fuse. L. Fust. F. Gage. F. Gain, F. Gall. F. (gall nut.) Gall. F. to fret. Gaol. F. Garb. F. Gaud. L. Gauze. F. Gay. F. Gem. F. L. Germ. L. Gest. L. Gig. F. Gill. L. a measure. Gimp. F. Gist. F. Gland. L. Glave, L. Glean. F. Glebe. L. Globe. L. Gloss. L. G. comment. Gluc. L. Glume. L. Glut. L. in Glmph. G. Gnome. G. Goal. F. Gob. F. Gorge. F. I. L. Gouge. F. Gourd. F. Gout. F. Grace. F. L. Grade. L. Grail. F. Grain. L. Grand. L. Grange. F. L. Grant. F.

Grape. F.

Grate. I. L. (noun) Grate. F. (verb.) Grave. F. Grcase. F. Greaves. F. Grobe. F. Grief. F. Grill. F. Grinie. I. Gross. L. Grot. F. Group. F. I. Grudge. F. Grume. F. Guard. F. Guide. F. Guise. F. Gules. F. Gulf. G. Gum. F. L. G. Gurge. L. Gust. I. L. taste. Gyre. G. Hack. F. hackney. Hash. F. Hatch. F. Haught. F. Haunch. F. Haunt. F. Hawse. F. Hearse. F. Heir. F. Herb. L. Host. L. landlord. Host. L. (Rom. Cath.) Host. L. (army.) Hour. G. Hue. F. (Hue and Cry.) Hulk. G. Hymn. L. G. Ides. L. Ire. L. Isle. F. Jack. F. Jade. S. Jail. F. Jamb. F. Jaw. F. Jay. F. Jest. L. Jet. G. Jet. F. Jig. F. Join. L. Joke. L. Jot. G. Joust. F. Joy. F.

Judge. L. Juice. F. June. L Just. L. Ketch. F. Lace. F. Lache. F. Lamp. G. Lance. L. Lapse. L. Lar. L. Larch. L. Lard. L. Large. L. Laud, L. Lave. L. Lawn (cloth). S. Lax. L. Lay. G. the laity. Lay. F. a song. League. F. Lease. F. Leash. F. Lees. F. Lens. L. Liege. F. Lieu. F. Lime. F. Limn. F. Line. L. (noun.) Link. G. Lint. L. List. F. I. Loach. F. Lobe. G. Long. L. (adj.) Lote. G. Lounge. F. Luce. L. Luff. F. Lurch. I. Lure. F. Lute. F. Lymph. L. Lynx. L. Lyre. L. Mace. L. a club. Mace. L. a kind of spice. Mail. F. armour. Mail. F. 'a bag. Male. F. Mall. L. Mange. F. Map. L. March. L. the month. March. F. Marque. F. Mars. L.

Mask. F. Mass. L. a heap Mass. L. religious eeremony. Match. F. Mate. F. Maund. F. May. L. the month Meal. F. Mean. L. middle Mere. J. L. Merge. L. Merle. L. Mess. F. Mew. F. Micn. F. Mime. G. Mine. F. Mix. L.\* Moat. F. Mob. L. Mock. F. G. Mode. F. Moil. F. Moist. F. Mole. L. a mound Mome. F. Mood. L. in gram-Moor. L. an African. Mop. L. Mosque. F. Mount. F. Move. L. Mulct. L. Mule. L. Mull. L. wine. Mumm. G-Munch. F. Mure. L. to wall. Muse. L. Musk. L. Must. L. Must. F. Mute. L. Mute. F. Nave. L. Nard. G. Neat. F. Nep. L. a plant. Nerve. L. Net. F. Niche. F. Niece. F. Node. L. Noise. F. Nome. G. Noose. F.

Note. L.

Noun. L. Nude. L. Null. L. Nun. I. Nurse. F. Nymph. G, Ode. G. Orb. L. Orc. L. Ounce. L. Oust. F. Pace. F. Pact. L. Page. L. Page. F. Pail. G. S. Paint. F. Pair. L. Pale. L. (n.) Pale. L. (a.)
Pall. L. \* a cloth. Palm. L. Paue. F. Pant. F. Pap. L.\* a teat. Pap. L. \* soft food Par. L. equality. Pard. L. Pare. F. Parse. L. Part. L. Pasch. G. Pass. L.\* Paste. L. Paunch. L. Pause. G. Pave. L. Pawn (chess) S. Pay. F. Peace. L. Peach. F. Peel. F. Peep. L. Peer. F. Peg. G. Pelt. L. (n.) Pelt. L. (v.) Pen. L. Perch. F. a measure. Perch. L. a flsh. Phlegm. G. Phrase. G. Pie. F. Piece. F. Pierce. F. Pike. F. Pile. L. hair. Pile. L. a heap.

Pile. L. an arrowhead. Pill. L. (n.) Pinch. F. Pine. L. a tree. Pint. S. Pip. L.\* Pique. F. Pix. L. Place. F. Plague. G. Plain. L. Plait. L. Plan. F. Planch. F. Plane. L. Plank. F. Plant. L. Plasm. G. Plat. G. Plate. S. G. Plea. F. Plead. F. L. Please. F. Pledge. F. Plintb. G. Plumb. F. Plume. L. Plunge. F. Poach. F. Point. L. Poise. F. Pole. G. Poop. G. Poor. F. Pope. L. Porch. F. Pore. G. Pork. L. Port. L. mien. Port. L. a gate. Port. L. a harbour Post. L. Pot. F. Potch. F. Poule. F. Poult. L. Pounce. F. Ĺ powder. Pounce. S. talon Pout. F. Praise. F. Pray. F. Preach. F. Press. L. Prest. F. Prey. F. Price. F.\* Prime. L.

Prince. F. Print. F. Prize. F. Prompt. L. Prone. L. Prose. L. Prow. F. (nautical.) Prow. F. valiant Prude. F. Prune. L. Psalm. G. Pule. F. Pulp. L. Pulse. L. Pump. F. Punch. I. Pure. L. Purge. L. Purl. I. Purse. F. Pus. L. Push. F. Pyre. G. Quaff. F. Quail. F. a bird. Quaint. L. Quart. F. Quay. F. Quest. F. Quill. F. Quilt. L. Quince. F. Quint. F. Quire. G. Quire. F. sheets of pa per. Quit. F. Quite. F. Quote. F. Race. F. lineage. Raft. L. Rag. G. Rage. F. Ramp. F. Range. F. Rap. L. Rape. L. Rape. L. a plant. Rare. F. Rase. L. Rate. L. Ray. F. light. Ray. L. a fish. Raze. L. a root of ginger. Raze. L. Rear. L. Reign. F. Rcin. F.

Reins. L. kidneys. Rest. L. as 'the rest of,' &c. Rheum, G. Rhomb. G. Rice, G. Rill. L. Risk. F. Rite. F. Roan. F. Roast. F. Robe. F. Rock. F. Roist. F. Roll. F. Rook. F. Rose. F. Rouge. F. Round. F. Rout. F. Route. F. Rude. F. Rule. F. Ruse. F. Rut. F. the track of a wheel. Sack. F. wine. Safe. F. Sage. F. Sage. F. a plant. Saint. F. Salt. L. a leap. Saue. F. Sans. F. Sap. F. (verb.) Sash. F. Sate. L. Save. F. Say, F. Scald. F. Scale. L. Scan. L. Scar. G. Scarce. F. L. Scarf. F. Scene. G. Scent. L. Scheme. G. School. L. Scoff. G. Scope. G. F. tax. Scot. share. Scout. F. Scourge. F. Screen. F. Scribe. F. Scroll. F.

Scroyle. F.

Seal. L. a stamp. Search. F. Seat. L. Sect. L. See. L. (noun.) Scel. F. Seize. F. Sell. L. Sense. L. Serf. F. Scrge. F. Serve. F. Sex. F. Sheet. F. (nautical.) Shock. F. Shot. F. Sice. L. (at dice.) Siege. F. Sign. F. Sine. L. Sir. F. Sirc. F. Site. L. Skain.—Skein. F. Sketch. I. sweet | Slate. F. Sneer. L. Soar. F. Sock. L. Soil. L. earth. Sole. F. (noun.)
Sole. F. (adj.) Solve. L. Sore. F. Sort. L. Sound. L. Source. L. Souse. L. Space. L. Sparse. L. Sphere. G. Sphinx. G. Spice. F. L. Spike. L. Spine. L. Spire. G. Spiss. L. Spleen. G. Spoil, L. Sponge. L. Spouse. L. Spume. L. Spurge. L. Spy. F. Squad. F. Square. L. Squill. L. Staff. F. tary.)

Stage. F. Stanch. F. State. L. Stay. F. Stew. F. Still. L. distillation. Stole. L. Strain. L. Strait. L. Strange. F. Strict. L. Style. L. Sue. F. Suit. F. Sum. L. Surd. L. Sure. F. Surge. L. Sylph. G. Syrt. L. Tack. F. Tact. L. Taint. L. Tan. F. Tang. G. Tank. F. Tap. F. Tare. F. Tart, F. Task. F. Taste. F. Taunt. F. Tax. F. Tell. L. Tempt. L. Tench. L. Tend. L. Tense.L. in grammar. Tense. L. tight. Tent. L. Terse. L. Test. L. Text. L. Theme. G. Threne. G. Throb. G. Throne. L. Thrust. L. Thyme. G. Tick. F. Tierce. F. Tiff. F. Tinge. L. Toast. L. Toil. L. Tomb. G. (mili- Tome. G. Tone. L.

### 358

#### APPENDIX.

Tope. F. Torch. F. Tort. F. Touch. F. Tour. F. Trace. L. Track. L. Tract. L. Trade. L. Train. F. Trait. F. Trance. L. Trap. F. Trave, F. Tray. L. Treat. F. Trench. F. Tress. F. Tret. L. (?) Trey. F. Tribe. L. m...ck. L.

Trine. L. Tripe. F. Trist. L. Trite. L. Troop. F. Trope. G. Trot. F. Trounce. F. Truce. F. Truck. F. Truck. G. Trump. F. Trunk. L. Truss. F. Try. F. Tube. L. Tuft. F. Tune. L. Type. G. Urge. L. Urn. L. Use. L

Vail. F. Vain. L. Vale. L. Valve. L. Van. F. Vase. L. Vast. L. Vault. L. (n.) Vault. L. (v.) Vaunt. F. to boast. Vaunt. F. the first dart. Veal. F. Veer. F. Veil. L. Vein. L. Vend. L. Venge. L. Vent. L. (?) Verb. L. Verge. L. (n.)

Verse. L. Vert. L. Vest. F. Vetch. L. Vex. L. Vice. L. Vice. F. a Vicw. F. Vile. L. Vine. L. Vogue. F. Voice. F. Void. L. Votc. F. Vouch. L. Vow. F. Wage. L. Wait. L. Wall. L. Wince. L. Zeal. G. Zone. G.\*